



Rust Language Cheat Sheet

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Contains clickable links to [The Book](#) ^{BK}, [Rust by Example](#) ^{EX}, [Std Docs](#) ^{STD}, [Nomicon](#) ^{NOM}, [Reference](#) ^{REF}.



Data Structures

Data types and memory locations defined via keywords.

Example	Explanation
<code>struct S {}</code>	Define a struct ^{BK EX STD REF} with named fields.
<code>struct S { x: T }</code>	Define struct with named field <code>x</code> of type <code>T</code> .
<code>struct S(T);</code>	Define "tupled" struct with numbered field <code>.0</code> of type <code>T</code> .
<code>struct S;</code>	Define zero sized ^{NOM} unit struct. Occupies no space, optimized away.
<code>enum E {}</code>	Define an enum , ^{BK EX REF} c. algebraic data types , tagged unions .
<code>enum E { A, B(), C {} }</code>	Define variants of enum; can be unit- <code>A</code> , tuple- <code>B()</code> and struct-like <code>C{}.</code>
<code>enum E { A = 1 }</code>	If variants are only unit-like, allow discriminant values, e.g., for FFI.
<code>union U {}</code>	Unsafe C-like union ^{REF} for FFI compatibility.
<code>static X: T = T();</code>	Global variable ^{BK EX REF} with <code>'static</code> lifetime, single memory location.
<code>const X: T = T();</code>	Defines constant , ^{BK EX REF} copied into a temporary when used.
<code>let x: T;</code>	Allocate <code>T</code> bytes on stack ¹ bound as <code>x</code> . Assignable once, not mutable.
<code>let mut x: T;</code>	Like <code>let</code> , but allow for mutability ^{BK EX} and mutable borrow. ²
<code>x = y;</code>	Moves <code>y</code> to <code>x</code> , invalidating <code>y</code> if <code>T</code> is not Copy , ^{STD} and copying <code>y</code> otherwise.

¹ **Bound variables** ^{BK EX REF} live on stack for synchronous code. In `async {}` they become part of `async`'s state machine, may reside on heap.

² Technically *mutable* and *immutable* are misnomer. Immutable binding or shared reference may still contain `Cell` ^{STD}, giving *interior mutability*.

Creating and accessing data structures; and some more *sigilic* types.

Example	Explanation
<code>S { x: y }</code>	Create <code>struct S {}</code> or <code>use'ed enum E::S {}</code> with field <code>x</code> set to <code>y</code> .
<code>S { x }</code>	Same, but use local variable <code>x</code> for field <code>x</code> .
<code>S { ..s }</code>	Fill remaining fields from <code>s</code> , esp. useful with Default .
<code>S { 0: x }</code>	Like <code>S(x)</code> below, but set field <code>.0</code> with struct syntax.
<code>S(x)</code>	Create <code>struct S(T)</code> or <code>use'ed enum E::S()</code> with field <code>.0</code> set to <code>x</code> .
<code>S</code>	If <code>S</code> is unit <code>struct S;</code> or <code>use'ed enum E::S</code> create value of <code>S</code> .
<code>E::C { x: y }</code>	Create enum variant <code>C</code> . Other methods above also work.
<code>()</code>	Empty tuple, both literal and type, aka unit . ^{STD}
<code>(x)</code>	Parenthesized expression.
<code>(x,)</code>	Single-element tuple expression. ^{EX STD REF}

Example	Explanation
<code>(S,)</code>	Single-element tuple type.
<code>[S]</code>	Array type of unspecified length, i.e., slice . ^{EX STD REF} Can't live on stack. *
<code>[S; n]</code>	Array type ^{EX STD} of fixed length <code>n</code> holding elements of type <code>S</code> .
<code>[x; n]</code>	Array instance with <code>n</code> copies of <code>x</code> . ^{REF}
<code>[x, y]</code>	Array instance with given elements <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> .
<code>x[0]</code>	Collection indexing, here w. <code>usize</code> . Implementable with Index , IndexMut .
<code>x[..]</code>	Same, via range (here <i>full range</i>), also <code>x[a..b]</code> , <code>x[a..=b]</code> , ... c. below.
<code>a..b</code>	Right-exclusive range ^{STD REF} creation, e.g., <code>1..3</code> means <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> .
<code>..b</code>	Right-exclusive range to ^{STD} without starting point.
<code>a..=b</code>	Inclusive range , ^{STD} <code>1..=3</code> means <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> , <code>3</code> .
<code>..=b</code>	Inclusive range from ^{STD} without starting point.
<code>..</code>	Full range , ^{STD} usually means <i>the whole collection</i> .
<code>s.x</code>	Named field access , ^{REF} might try to Deref if <code>x</code> not part of type <code>S</code> .
<code>s.0</code>	Numbered field access, used for tuple types <code>S (T)</code> .

* For now, ^{RFC} pending completion of [tracking issue](#).

References & Pointers

Granting access to un-owned memory. Also see section on Generics & Constraints.

Example	Explanation
<code>&S</code>	Shared reference ^{BK STD NOM REF} (space for holding <i>any</i> <code>&s</code>).
<code>&[S]</code>	Special slice reference that contains (address, length).
<code>&str</code>	Special string slice reference that contains (address, length).
<code>&mut S</code>	Exclusive reference to allow mutability (also <code>&mut [S]</code> , <code>&mut dyn S</code> , ...).
<code>&dyn T</code>	Special trait object ^{BK} reference that contains (address, vtable).
<code>&s</code>	Shared borrow ^{BK EX STD} (e.g., address, len, vtable, ... of <i>this</i> <code>s</code> , like <code>0x1234</code>).
<code>&mut s</code>	Exclusive borrow that allows mutability . ^{EX}
<code>*const S</code>	Immutable raw pointer type ^{BK STD REF} w/o memory safety.
<code>*mut S</code>	Mutable raw pointer type w/o memory safety.
<code>&raw const s</code>	Create raw pointer w/o going through reference; c. <code>ptr::addr_of!()</code> ^{STD} ??
<code>&raw mut s</code>	Same, but mutable. ?? Raw ptrs. are needed for unaligned, packed fields.
<code>ref s</code>	Bind by reference , ^{EX} makes binding reference type. 🗑
<code>let ref r = s;</code>	Equivalent to <code>let r = &s</code> .
<code>let S { ref mut x } = s;</code>	Mutable ref binding (<code>let x = &mut s.x</code>), shorthand destructuring [!] version.
<code>*r</code>	Dereference ^{BK STD NOM} a reference <code>r</code> to access what it points to.
<code>*r = s;</code>	If <code>r</code> is a mutable reference, move or copy <code>s</code> to target memory.
<code>s = *r;</code>	Make <code>s</code> a copy of whatever <code>r</code> references, if that is Copy .
<code>s = *r;</code>	Won't work 🚫 if <code>*r</code> is not Copy , as that would move and leave empty place.
<code>s = *my_box;</code>	Special case [👉] for Box that can also move out Box'ed content if it isn't Copy .
<code>'a</code>	A lifetime parameter , ^{BK EX NOM REF} duration of a flow in static analysis.
<code>&'a S</code>	Only accepts an address holding an <code>s</code> ; addr. existing <code>'a</code> or longer.
<code>&'a mut S</code>	Same, but allow content of address to be changed.
<code>struct S<'a> {}</code>	Signals <code>S</code> will contain address with lifetime <code>'a</code> . Creator of <code>S</code> decides <code>'a</code> .
<code>trait T<'a> {}</code>	Signals a <code>S</code> which <code>impl T for S</code> might contain address.

Example	Explanation
<code>fn f<'a>(t: &'a T)</code>	Same, for function. Caller decides <code>'a</code> .
<code>'static</code>	Special lifetime lasting the entire program execution.

Functions & Behavior

Define units of code and their abstractions.

Example	Explanation
<code>trait T {}</code>	Define a trait ; <code>BK EX REF</code> common behavior others can implement.
<code>trait T : R {}</code>	<code>T</code> is subtrait of supertrait <code>REF R</code> . Any <code>S</code> must <code>impl R</code> before it can <code>impl T</code> .
<code>impl S {}</code>	Implementation <code>REF</code> of functionality for a type <code>S</code> , e.g., methods.
<code>impl T for S {}</code>	Implement trait <code>T</code> for type <code>S</code> .
<code>impl !T for S {}</code>	Disable an automatically derived auto trait . <code>NOM REF</code> 🚫
<code>fn f() {}</code>	Definition of a function ; <code>BK EX REF</code> or associated function if inside <code>impl</code> .
<code>fn f() -> S {}</code>	Same, returning a value of type <code>S</code> .
<code>fn f(&self) {}</code>	Define a method , <code>BK EX</code> e.g., within an <code>impl S {}</code> .
<code>const fn f() {}</code>	Constant <code>fn</code> usable at compile time, e.g., <code>const X: u32 = f(Y)</code> . ¹⁸
<code>async fn f() {}</code>	Async <code>REF</code> ¹⁸ function transformation, <code>!</code> makes <code>f</code> return an <code>impl Future</code> . <code>STD</code>
<code>async fn f() -> S {}</code>	Same, but make <code>f</code> return an <code>impl Future<Output=S></code> .
<code>async { x }</code>	Used within a function, make <code>{ x }</code> an <code>impl Future<Output=X></code> .
<code>fn() -> S</code>	Function pointers , <code>BK STD REF</code> memory holding address of a callable.
<code>Fn() -> S</code>	Callable Trait <code>BK STD</code> (also <code>FnMut</code> , <code>FnOnce</code>), implemented by closures, <code>fn</code> 's ...
<code> {}</code>	A closure <code>BK EX REF</code> that borrows its captures , <code>!</code> <code>REF</code> (e.g., a local variable).
<code> x {}</code>	Closure accepting one argument named <code>x</code> , body is block expression.
<code> x x + x</code>	Same, without block expression; may only consist of single expression.
<code>move x x + y</code>	Closure taking ownership of its captures; i.e., <code>y</code> transferred to closure.
<code>return true</code>	Closures sometimes look like logical ORs (here: return a closure).
<code>unsafe</code>	If you enjoy debugging segfaults Friday night; unsafe code . <code>!</code> <code>BK EX NOM REF</code>
<code>unsafe fn f() {}</code>	Means "calling can cause UB, <code>!</code> YOU must check requirements ".
<code>unsafe trait T {}</code>	Means "careless impl. of <code>T</code> can cause UB; implementor must check ".
<code>unsafe { f(); }</code>	Guarantees to compiler " I have checked requirements, trust me ".
<code>unsafe impl T for S {}</code>	Guarantees <code>S</code> is well-behaved w.r.t <code>T</code> ; people may use <code>T</code> on <code>S</code> safely.

Control Flow

Control execution within a function.

Example	Explanation
<code>while x {}</code>	Loop , <code>REF</code> run while expression <code>x</code> is true.
<code>loop {}</code>	Loop indefinitely <code>REF</code> until <code>break</code> . Can yield value with <code>break x</code> .
<code>for x in iter {}</code>	Syntactic sugar to loop over iterators . <code>BK STD REF</code>
<code>if x {} else {}</code>	Conditional branch <code>REF</code> if expression is true.
<code>'label: loop {}</code>	Loop label , <code>EX REF</code> useful for flow control in nested loops.
<code>break</code>	Break expression <code>REF</code> to exit a loop.
<code>break x</code>	Same, but make <code>x</code> value of the loop expression (only in actual <code>loop</code>).
<code>break 'label</code>	Exit not only this loop, but the enclosing one marked with <code>'label</code> .

Example	Explanation
<code>break 'label' x</code>	Same, but make <code>x</code> the value of the enclosing loop marked with <code>'label'</code> .
<code>continue</code>	Continue expression ^{REF} to the next loop iteration of this loop.
<code>continue 'label'</code>	Same but instead of this loop, enclosing loop marked with <code>'label'</code> .
<code>x?</code>	If <code>x</code> is <code>Err</code> or <code>None</code> , return and propagate . ^{BK EX STD REF}
<code>x.await</code>	Only works inside <code>async</code> . Yield flow until <code>Future</code> ^{STD} or Stream <code>x</code> ready. ^{REF} ¹⁸
<code>return x</code>	Early return from function. More idiomatic way is to end with expression.
<code>f()</code>	Invoke callable <code>f</code> (e.g., a function, closure, function pointer, <code>Fn</code> , ...).
<code>x.f()</code>	Call member function, requires <code>f</code> takes <code>self</code> , <code>&self</code> , ... as first argument.
<code>X::f(x)</code>	Same as <code>x.f()</code> . Unless <code>impl Copy for X {}</code> , <code>f</code> can only be called once.
<code>X::f(&x)</code>	Same as <code>x.f()</code> .
<code>X::f(&mut x)</code>	Same as <code>x.f()</code> .
<code>S::f(&x)</code>	Same as <code>x.f()</code> if <code>X</code> derefs to <code>S</code> , i.e., <code>x.f()</code> finds methods of <code>S</code> .
<code>T::f(&x)</code>	Same as <code>x.f()</code> if <code>X</code> impl <code>T</code> , i.e., <code>x.f()</code> finds methods of <code>T</code> if in scope.
<code>X::f()</code>	Call associated function, e.g., <code>X::new()</code> .
<code><X as T>::f()</code>	Call trait method <code>T::f()</code> implemented for <code>X</code> .

Organizing Code

Segment projects into smaller units and minimize dependencies.

Example	Explanation
<code>mod m {}</code>	Define a module , ^{BK EX REF} get definition from inside <code>{}</code> . ⁴
<code>mod m;</code>	Define a module, get definition from <code>m.rs</code> or <code>m/mod.rs</code> . ⁴
<code>a::b</code>	Namespace path ^{EX REF} to element <code>b</code> within <code>a</code> (<code>mod</code> , <code>enum</code> , ...).
<code>::b</code>	Search <code>b</code> relative to crate root. [🗑]
<code>crate::b</code>	Search <code>b</code> relative to crate root. ¹⁸
<code>self::b</code>	Search <code>b</code> relative to current module.
<code>super::b</code>	Search <code>b</code> relative to parent module.
<code>use a::b;</code>	Use ^{EX REF} <code>b</code> directly in this scope without requiring <code>a</code> anymore.
<code>use a::{b, c};</code>	Same, but bring <code>b</code> and <code>c</code> into scope.
<code>use a::b as x;</code>	Bring <code>b</code> into scope but name <code>x</code> , like <code>use std::error::Error as E</code> .
<code>use a::b as _;</code>	Bring <code>b</code> anonymously into scope, useful for traits with conflicting names.
<code>use a::*;</code>	Bring everything from <code>a</code> in, only recommended if <code>a</code> is some prelude . [♂]
<code>pub use a::b;</code>	Bring <code>a::b</code> into scope and reexport from here.
<code>pub T</code>	"Public if parent path is public" visibility ^{BK REF} for <code>T</code> .
<code>pub(crate) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in current crate.
<code>pub(super) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in parent.
<code>pub(self) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in current module (default, same as no <code>pub</code>).
<code>pub(in a::b) T</code>	Visible at most ¹ in ancestor <code>a::b</code> .
<code>extern crate a;</code>	Declare dependency on external crate , ^{BK REF} [🗑] just <code>use a::b</code> in ¹⁸ .
<code>extern "C" {}</code>	<i>Declare</i> external dependencies and ABI (e.g., <code>"C"</code>) from FFI . ^{BK EX NOM REF}
<code>extern "C" fn f() {}</code>	<i>Define</i> function to be exported with ABI (e.g., <code>"C"</code>) to FFI.

¹ Items in child modules always have access to any item, regardless if `pub` or not.

Type Aliases and Casts

Short-hand names of types, and methods to convert one type to another.

Example	Explanation
<code>type T = S;</code>	Create a type alias , ^{BK REF} i.e., another name for <code>S</code> .
<code>Self</code>	Type alias for implementing type , ^{REF} e.g. <code>fn new() -> Self</code> .
<code>self</code>	Method subject in <code>fn f(self) {}</code> , same as <code>fn f(self: Self) {}</code> .
<code>&self</code>	Same, but refers to self as borrowed, same as <code>f(self: &Self)</code>
<code>&mut self</code>	Same, but mutably borrowed, same as <code>f(self: &mut Self)</code>
<code>self: Box<Self></code>	Arbitrary self type , add methods to smart pointers (<code>my_box.f_of_self()</code>).
<code>S as T</code>	Disambiguate ^{BK REF} type <code>S</code> as trait <code>T</code> , e.g., <code><S as T>::f()</code> .
<code>S as R</code>	In use of symbol, import <code>S</code> as <code>R</code> , e.g., <code>use a::S as R</code> .
<code>x as u32</code>	Primitive cast , ^{EX REF} may truncate and be a bit surprising. ^{NOM}

Macros & Attributes

Code generation constructs expanded before the actual compilation happens.

Example	Explanation
<code>m!()</code>	Macro ^{BK STD REF} invocation, also <code>m!{}</code> , <code>m![]</code> (depending on macro).
<code>#[attr]</code>	Outer attribute , ^{EX REF} annotating the following item.
<code>#![attr]</code>	Inner attribute, annotating the <i>upper</i> , surrounding item.

Inside Macros	Explanation
<code>\$x:ty</code>	Macro capture (here a type); see tooling directives ¹ for details.
<code>\$x</code>	Macro substitution, e.g., use the captured <code>\$x:ty</code> from above.
<code>\$ (x),*</code>	Macro repetition "zero or more times" in macros by example.
<code>\$ (x),?</code>	Same, but "zero or one time".
<code>\$ (x),+</code>	Same, but "one or more times".
<code>\$ (x)<<+</code>	In fact separators other than <code>,</code> are also accepted. Here: <code><<</code> .

Pattern Matching

Constructs found in `match` or `let` expressions, or function parameters.

Example	Explanation
<code>match m {}</code>	Initiate pattern matching , ^{BK EX REF} then use match arms, c. next table.
<code>let S(x) = get();</code>	Notably, <code>let</code> also destructures ^{EX} similar to the table below.
<code>let S { x } = s;</code>	Only <code>x</code> will be bound to value <code>s.x</code> .
<code>let (_, b, _) = abc;</code>	Only <code>b</code> will be bound to value <code>abc.1</code> .
<code>let (a, ..) = abc;</code>	Ignoring 'the rest' also works.
<code>let (.., a, b) = (1, 2);</code>	Specific bindings take precedence over 'the rest', here <code>a</code> is <code>1</code> , <code>b</code> is <code>2</code> .
<code>let s @ S { x } = get();</code>	Bind <code>s</code> to <code>S</code> while <code>x</code> is bound to <code>s.x</code> , pattern binding , ^{BK EX REF} c. below
<code>let w @ t @ f = get();</code>	Stores 3 copies of <code>get()</code> result in each <code>w</code> , <code>t</code> , <code>f</code> . Please don't do this.
<code>let Some(x) = get();</code>	Won't work [●] if pattern can be refuted , ^{REF} use <code>if let</code> instead.
<code>if let Some(x) = get() {}</code>	Branch if pattern can be assigned (e.g., <code>enum</code> variant), syntactic sugar. [*]
<code>while let Some(x) = get() {}</code>	Equiv.; here keep calling <code>get()</code> , run <code>{}</code> as long as pattern can be assigned.
<code>fn f(S { x }: S)</code>	Function parameters also work like <code>let</code> , here <code>x</code> bound to <code>s.x</code> of <code>f(s)</code> .



^{*} Desugars to `match get() { Some(x) => {}, _ => () }.`

Pattern matching arms in `match` expressions. Left side of these arms can also be found in `let` expressions.

Within Match Arm	Explanation
<code>E::A => {}</code>	Match enum variant <code>A</code> , c. pattern matching . BK EX REF
<code>E::B (..) => {}</code>	Match enum tuple variant <code>B</code> , wildcard any index.
<code>E::C { .. } => {}</code>	Match enum struct variant <code>C</code> , wildcard any field.
<code>S { x: 0, y: 1 } => {}</code>	Match struct with specific values (only accepts <code>s</code> with <code>s.x</code> of <code>0</code> and <code>s.y</code> of <code>1</code>).
<code>S { x: a, y: b } => {}</code>	Match struct with <i>any</i> (!) values and bind <code>s.x</code> to <code>a</code> and <code>s.y</code> to <code>b</code> .
<code> S { x, y } => {}</code>	Same, but shorthand with <code>s.x</code> and <code>s.y</code> bound as <code>x</code> and <code>y</code> respectively.
<code>S { .. } => {}</code>	Match struct with any values.
<code>D => {}</code>	Match enum variant <code>E::D</code> if <code>D</code> in use .
<code>D => {}</code>	Match anything, bind <code>D</code> ; possibly false friend  of <code>E::D</code> if <code>D</code> not in use .
<code>_ => {}</code>	Proper wildcard that matches anything / "all the rest".
<code>0 1 => {}</code>	Pattern alternatives, or-patterns . RFC
<code>E::A E::Z</code>	Same, but on enum variants.
<code>E::C {x} E::D {x}</code>	Same, but bind <code>x</code> if all variants have it.
<code>Some(A B)</code>	Same, can also match alternatives deeply nested.
<code>(a, 0) => {}</code>	Match tuple with any value for <code>a</code> and <code>0</code> for second.
<code>[a, 0] => {}</code>	Slice pattern , REF  match array with any value for <code>a</code> and <code>0</code> for second.
<code>[1, ..] => {}</code>	Match array starting with <code>1</code> , any value for rest; slice pattern . ?
<code>[1, .., 5] => {}</code>	Match array starting with <code>1</code> , ending with <code>5</code> .
<code>[1, x @ .., 5] => {}</code>	Same, but also bind <code>x</code> to slice representing middle (c. pattern binding).
<code>[a, x @ .., b] => {}</code>	Same, but match any first, last, bound as <code>a</code> , <code>b</code> respectively.
<code>1 .. 3 => {}</code>	Range pattern , BK REF here matches <code>1</code> and <code>2</code> ; partially unstable. 
<code>1 ..= 3 => {}</code>	Inclusive range pattern, matches <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> and <code>3</code> .
<code>1 .. => {}</code>	Open range pattern, matches <code>1</code> and any larger number.
<code>x @ 1..=5 => {}</code>	Bind matched to <code>x</code> ; pattern binding , BK EX REF here <code>x</code> would be <code>1</code> , <code>2</code> , ... or <code>5</code> .
<code>Err(x @ Error {..}) => {}</code>	Also works nested, here <code>x</code> binds to <code>Error</code> , esp. useful with if below.
<code>S { x } if x > 10 => {}</code>	Pattern match guards , BK EX REF condition must be true as well to match.

Generics & Constraints

Generics combine with type constructors, traits and functions to give your users more flexibility.

Example	Explanation
<code>S<T></code>	A generic BK EX type with a type parameter (<code>T</code> is placeholder name here).
<code>S<T: R></code>	Type short hand trait bound BK EX specification (<code>R</code> <i>must</i> be actual trait).
<code>T: R, P: S</code>	Independent trait bounds (here one for <code>T</code> and one for <code>P</code>).
<code>T: R, S</code>	Compile error,  you probably want compound bound <code>R + S</code> below.
<code>T: R + S</code>	Compound trait bound , BK EX <code>T</code> must fulfill <code>R</code> and <code>S</code> .
<code>T: R + 'a</code>	Same, but w. lifetime. <code>T</code> must fulfill <code>R</code> , if <code>T</code> has lifetimes, must outlive <code>'a</code> .
<code>T: ?Sized</code>	Opt out of a pre-defined trait bound, here <code>Sized</code> . ?
<code>T: 'a</code>	Type lifetime bound ; EX if <code>T</code> has references, they must outlive <code>'a</code> .
<code>T: 'static</code>	Same; does esp. <i>not</i> mean value <code>t</code> <i>will</i>  live <code>'static</code> , only that it could.
<code>'b: 'a</code>	Lifetime <code>'b</code> must live at least as long as (i.e., <i>outlive</i>) <code>'a</code> bound.
<code>S<const N: usize></code>	Generic const bound ; ? user of type <code>S</code> can provide constant value <code>N</code> .
<code>S<10></code>	Where used, const bounds can be provided as primitive values.

Example	Explanation
<code>S<{5+5}></code>	Expressions must be put in curly brackets.
<code>S<T> where T: R</code>	Almost same as <code>S<T: R></code> but more pleasant to read for longer bounds.
<code>S<T> where u8: R<T></code>	Also allows you to make conditional statements involving <i>other</i> types.
<code>S<T = R></code>	Default type parameter ^{BK} for associated type.
<code>S<'_></code>	Inferred anonymous lifetime ; asks compiler to 'figure it out' if obvious.
<code>S<_></code>	Inferred anonymous type , e.g., as <code>let x: Vec<_> = iter.collect()</code>
<code>S::<T></code>	Turbofish ^{STD} call site type disambiguation, e.g. <code>f::<u32>()</code> .
<code>trait T<X> {}</code>	A trait generic over <code>X</code> . Can have multiple <code>impl T for S</code> (one per <code>X</code>).
<code>trait T { type X; }</code>	Defines associated type ^{BK REF RFC} <code>X</code> . Only one <code>impl T for S</code> possible.
<code>type X = R;</code>	Set associated type within <code>impl T for S { type X = R; }</code> .
<code>impl<T> S<T> {}</code>	Implement functionality for any <code>T</code> in <code>S<T></code> , here <code>T</code> type parameter.
<code>impl S<T> {}</code>	Implement functionality for exactly <code>S<T></code> , here <code>T</code> specific type (e.g., <code>S<u32></code>).
<code>fn f() -> impl T</code>	Existential types , ^{BK} returns an unknown-to-caller <code>S</code> that <code>impl T</code> .
<code>fn f(x: &impl T)</code>	Trait bound, "impl traits", ^{BK} somewhat similar to <code>fn f<S:T>(x: &S)</code> .
<code>fn f(x: &dyn T)</code>	Marker for dynamic dispatch , ^{BK REF} <code>f</code> will not be monomorphized.
<code>fn f() where Self: R;</code>	In <code>trait T {}</code> , make <code>f</code> accessible only on types known to also <code>impl R</code> .
<code>fn f() where Self: Sized;</code>	Using <code>Sized</code> can opt <code>f</code> out of <code>dyn T</code> trait object vtable, enabling trait obj.
<code>fn f() where Self: R {}</code>	Other <code>R</code> useful w. dflt. methods (non dflt. would need be impl'ed anyway).

Higher-Ranked Items

Actual types and traits, abstract over something, usually lifetimes.

Example	Explanation
<code>for<'a></code>	Marker for higher-ranked bounds . ^{NOM REF}
<code>trait T: for<'a> R<'a> {}</code>	Any <code>S</code> that <code>impl T</code> would also have to fulfill <code>R</code> for any lifetime.
<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	<i>Fn. ptr.</i> type holding fn callable with specific lifetime <code>'a</code> .
<code>for<'a> fn(&'a u8)</code>	Higher-ranked type ¹ ^o holding fn callable with any <i>lt.</i> ; subtype of above.
<code>fn(&'_ u8)</code>	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>for<'a> fn(&'a u8)</code> .
<code>fn(&u8)</code>	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>for<'a> fn(&'a u8)</code> .
<code>dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)</code>	Higher-ranked (trait-object) type, works like <code>fn</code> above.
<code>dyn Fn(&'_ u8)</code>	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)</code> .
<code>dyn Fn(&u8)</code>	Same; automatically expanded to type <code>dyn for<'a> Fn(&'a u8)</code> .

¹ Yes, the `for<>` is part of the type, which is why you write `impl T for for<'a> fn(&'a u8)` below.

Implementing Traits	Explanation
<code>impl<'a> T for fn(&'a u8) {}</code>	For fn. pointer, where call accepts specific <i>lt.</i> <code>'a</code> , impl trait <code>T</code> .
<code>impl T for for<'a> fn(&'a u8) {}</code>	For fn. pointer, where call accepts any <i>lt.</i> , impl trait <code>T</code> .
<code>impl T for fn(&u8) {}</code>	Same, short version.

Strings & Chars

Rust has several ways to create textual values.

Example	Explanation
<code>"..."</code>	String literal , ^{REF, 1} UTF-8, will interpret <code>\n</code> as <i>line break</i> <code>0xA</code> , ...
<code>r"..."</code>	Raw string literal . ^{REF, 1} UTF-8, won't interpret <code>\n</code> , ...

Example	Explanation
<code>r#"..."#</code>	Raw string literal, UTF-8, but can also contain ". Number of # can vary.
<code>b"..."</code>	Byte string literal , REF , ¹ constructs ASCII <code>[u8]</code> , not a string.
<code>br"...", br#"..."#</code>	Raw byte string literal, ASCII <code>[u8]</code> , combination of the above.
<code>'👹'</code>	Character literal , REF fixed 4 byte unicode 'char'. STD
<code>b'x'</code>	ASCII byte literal . REF

¹ Supports multiple lines out of the box. Just keep in mind `Debug`¹ (e.g., `dbg!(x)` and `println!("{:?}", x)`) might render them as `\n`, while `Display`¹ (e.g., `println!("{}", x)`) renders them *proper*.

Documentation

Debuggers hate him. Avoid bugs with this one weird trick.

Example	Explanation
<code>///</code>	Outer line doc comment , BK EX REF use these on types, traits, functions, ...
<code>//!</code>	Inner line doc comment, mostly used at start of file to document module.
<code>//</code>	Line comment, use these to document code flow or <i>internals</i> .
<code>/*...*/</code>	Block comment.
<code>/**...*/</code>	Outer block doc comment.
<code>/*!...*/</code>	Inner block doc comment.

Tooling directives¹ outlines what you can do inside doc comments.

Miscellaneous

These sigils did not fit any other category but are good to know nonetheless.

Example	Explanation
<code>!</code>	Always empty never type . 👹 BK EX STD REF
<code>_</code>	Unnamed variable binding, e.g., <code> x, _ {}</code> .
<code>let _ = x;</code>	Unnamed assignment is no-op, does not 👹 move out x or preserve scope!
<code>_x</code>	Variable binding explicitly marked as unused.
<code>1_234_567</code>	Numeric separator for visual clarity.
<code>1_u8</code>	Type specifier for numeric literals EX REF (also <code>i8</code> , <code>u16</code> , ...).
<code>0xBEEF</code> , <code>0o777</code> , <code>0b1001</code>	Hexadecimal (<code>0x</code>), octal (<code>0o</code>) and binary (<code>0b</code>) integer literals.
<code>r#foo</code>	A raw identifier BK EX for edition compatibility.
<code>x;</code>	Statement REF terminator, c. expressions EX REF

Common Operators

Rust supports most operators you would expect (`+`, `*`, `%`, `=`, `==`, ...), including **overloading**. [STD](#) Since they behave no differently in Rust we do not list them here.

Behind the Scenes

Arcane knowledge that may do terrible things to your mind, highly recommended.

The Abstract Machine



Like `C` and `C++`, Rust is based on an *abstract machine*.

Overview

Rust

→

CPU

● Less correctish.

Rust

→

Abstract Machine

→

CPU

More correctish.

The abstract machine

- is not a runtime, and does not have any runtime overhead, but is a *computing model abstraction*,
- contains concepts such as memory regions (*stack*, ...), execution semantics, ...
- *knows* and *sees* things your CPU might not care about,
- forms a contract between programmer and machine,
- and **exploits all of the above for optimizations**.


Misconceptions


Things people may incorrectly assume they *should get away with* if Rust targeted CPU directly, and *more correct* counterparts:

Without AM	With AM
<code>0xffff_ffff</code> would make a valid <code>char</code> . ●	Memory more than just bits.
<code>0xff</code> and <code>0xff</code> are same pointer. ●	Pointers can come from different <i>domains</i> .
Any r/w pointer on <code>0xff</code> always fine. ●	Read and write reference may not exist same time.
Null reference is just <code>0x0</code> in some register. ●	Holding <code>0x0</code> in reference summons Cthulhu.

Language Sugar

If something works that "shouldn't work now that you think about it", it might be due to one of these.

Name	Description
Coercions <small>NOM</small>	<i>Weakens</i> types to match signature, e.g., <code>&mut T</code> to <code>&T</code> ; c. <i>type conversions</i> . ¹
Deref <small>NOM</small> 	<i>Derefs</i> <code>x: T</code> until <code>*x</code> , <code>**x</code> , ... compatible with some target <code>S</code> .
Prelude <small>STD</small>	Automatic import of basic items, e.g., <code>Option</code> , <code>drop</code> , ...
Reborrow	Since <code>x: &mut T</code> can't be copied; moves new <code>&mut *x</code> instead.
Lifetime Elision <small>BK NOM REF</small>	Automatically annotates <code>f(x: &T)</code> to <code>f(<'a>(x: &'a T))</code> .
Method Resolution <small>REF</small>	Derefs or borrow <code>x</code> until <code>x.f()</code> works.
Match Ergonomics <small>RFC</small>	Repeatedly dereferences <i>scrutinee</i> and adds <code>ref</code> and <code>ref mut</code> to bindings.
Rvalue Static Promotion <small>RFC</small>	Makes references to constants <code>'static</code> , e.g., <code>&42</code> , <code>&None</code> , <code>&mut []</code> .

Opinion  — The features above will make your life easier, but might hinder your understanding. If any (type-related) operation ever feels *inconsistent* it might be worth revisiting this list.

Memory & Lifetimes

Why moves, references and lifetimes are how they are.

Types & Moves



Application Memory ↓

- Application memory is just array of bytes on low level.
- Operating environment usually segments that, amongst others, into:
 - **stack** (small, low-overhead memory,¹ most *variables* go here),
 - **heap** (large, flexible memory, but always handled via stack proxy like `Box<T>`),
 - **static** (most commonly used as resting place for `str` part of `&str`),
 - **code** (where bitcode of your functions reside).
- Most tricky part is tied to **how stack evolves**, which is **our focus**.

¹ For fixed-size values stack is trivially manageable: *take a few bytes more while you need them, discarded once you leave*. However, giving out pointers to these *transient* locations form the very essence of why *lifetimes* exist; and are the subject of the rest of this chapter.



t

Variables ↓

```
let t = S(1);
```

- Reserves memory location with name `t` of type `S` and the value `S(1)` stored inside.
- If declared with `let` that location lives on stack. ¹
- Note the **linguistic ambiguity**,² in the term **variable**, it can mean the:
 1. **name** of the location in the source file ("rename that variable"),
 2. **location** in a compiled app, `0x7` ("tell me the address of that variable"),
 3. **value** contained within, `S(1)` ("increment that variable").
- Specifically towards the compiler `t` can mean **location of** `t`, here `0x7`, and **value within** `t`, here `S(1)`.

¹ Compare above,¹ true for fully synchronous code, but `async` stack frame might placed it on heap via runtime.



a

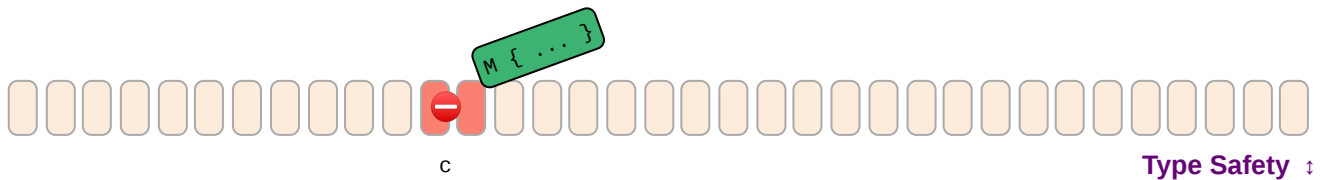
t

Moves ↓

```
let a = t;
```

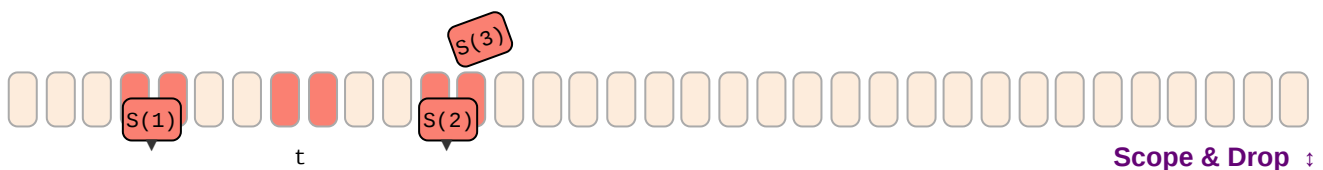
- This will **move** value within `t` to location of `a`, or copy it, if `S` is `Copy`.
- After move location `t` is **invalid** and cannot be read anymore.
 - Technically the bits at that location are not really *empty*, but *undefined*.
 - If you still had access to `t` (via `unsafe`) they might still *look* like valid `S`, but any attempt to use them as valid `S` is undefined behavior. ¹

- We do not cover **Copy** types explicitly here. They change the rules a bit, but not much:
 - They won't be dropped.
 - They never leave behind an 'empty' variable location.



```
let c: S = M::new();
```

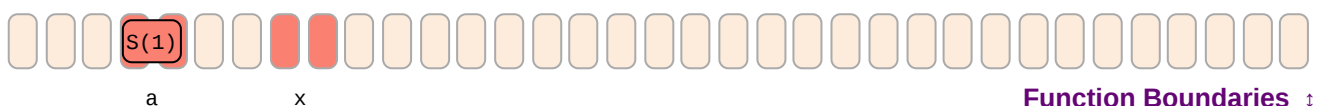
- The **type of a variable** serves multiple important purposes, it:
 1. dictates how the underlying bits are to be interpreted,
 2. allows only well-defined operations on these bits
 3. prevents random other values or bits from being written to that location.
- Here assignment fails to compile since the bytes of `M::new()` cannot be converted to form of type `S`.
- **Conversions between types will *always* fail** in general, **unless explicit rule allows it** (coercion, cast, ...).



```
{
  let mut c = S(2);
  c = S(3); // <- Drop called on `c` before assignment.
  let t = S(1);
  let a = t;
} // <- Scope of `a`, `t`, `c` ends here, drop called on `a`, `c`.
```

- Once the 'name' of a non-vacated variable goes out of (drop-)scope, the contained value is **dropped**.
 - Rule of thumb: execution reaches point where name of variable leaves `{ }`-block it was defined in
 - In detail more tricky, esp. temporaries, ...
- Drop also invoked when new value assigned to existing variable location.
- In that case **Drop::drop()** is called on the location of that value.
 - In the example above `drop()` is called on `a`, twice on `c`, but not on `t`.
- Most non-**Copy** values get dropped most of the time; exceptions include `mem::forget()`, `Rc` cycles, `abort()`.

Call Stack

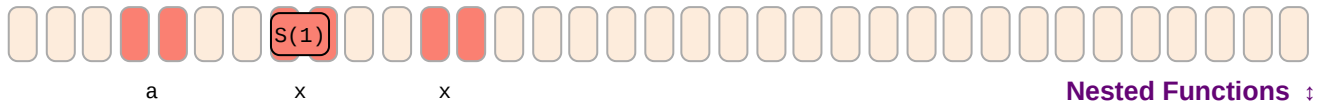


```
fn f(x: S) { ... }

let a = S(1); // <- We are here
f(a);
```

- When a **function is called**, memory for parameters (and return values) are reserved on stack.¹
- Here before `f` is invoked value in `a` is moved to 'agreed upon' location on stack, and during `f` works like 'local variable' `x`.

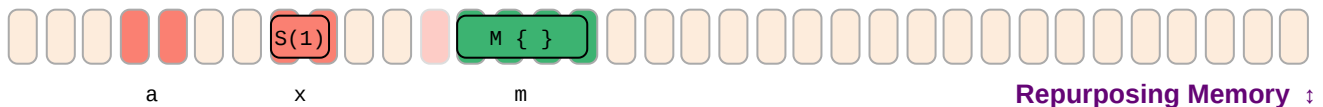
¹ Actual location depends on calling convention, might practically not end up on stack at all, but that doesn't change mental model.



```
fn f(x: S) {
  if once() { f(x) } // <- We are here (before recursion)
}

let a = S(1);
f(a);
```

- **Recursively calling** functions, or calling other functions, likewise extends the stack frame.
- Nesting too many invocations (esp. via unbounded recursion) will cause stack to grow, and eventually to overflow, terminating the app.



```
fn f(x: S) {
  if once() { f(x) }
  let m = M::new() // <- We are here (after recursion)
}

let a = S(1);
f(a);
```

- Stack that previously held a certain type will be repurposed across (even within) functions.
- Here, recursing on `f` produced second `x`, which after recursion was partially reused for `m`.

Key take away so far, there are multiple ways how memory locations that previously held a valid value of a certain type stopped doing so in the meantime. As we will see shortly, this has implications for pointers.

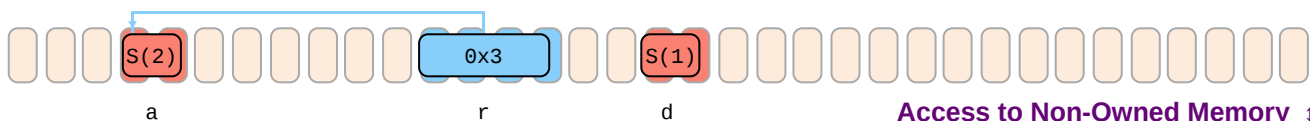


References as Pointers ↴

```
let a = S(1);
let r: &S = &a;
```

- A **reference type** such as `&S` or `&mut S` can hold the **location of** some `s`.
- Here type `&S`, bound as name `r`, holds *location of* variable `a` (`0x3`), that must be type `S`, obtained via `&a`.
- If you think of variable `c` as *specific location*, reference `r` is a **switchboard for locations**.
- The type of the reference, like all other types, can often be inferred, so we might omit it from now on:

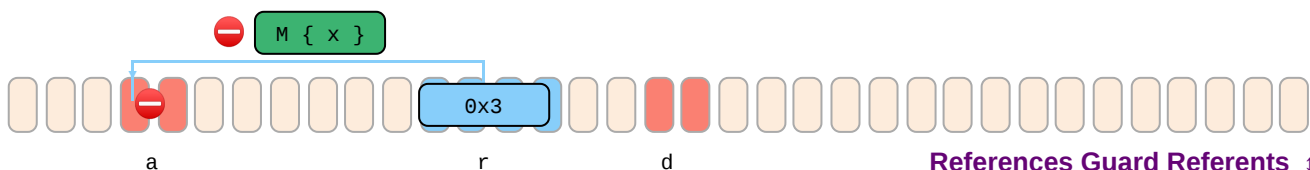
```
let r: &S = &a;
let r = &a;
```



Access to Non-Owned Memory ↴

```
let mut a = S(1);
let r = &mut a;
let d = r.clone(); // Valid to clone (or copy) from r-target.
*r = S(2);        // Valid to set new S value to r-target.
```

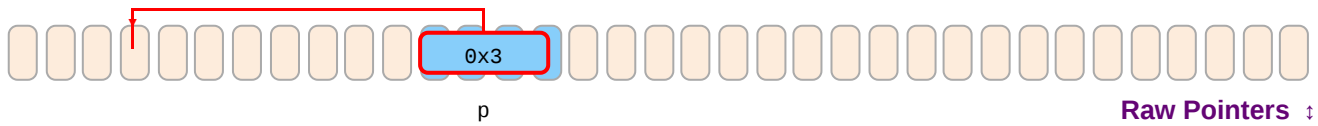
- References can **read from** (`&S`) and also **write to** (`&mut S`) location they point to.
- The *dereference* `*r` means to neither use the *location of* or *value within* `r`, but the **location `r` points to**.
- In example above, clone `d` is created from `*r`, and `S(2)` written to `*r`.
 - Method `Clone::clone(&T)` expects a reference itself, which is why we can use `r`, not `*r`.
 - On assignment `*r = ...` old value in location also dropped (not shown above).



References Guard Referents ↴

```
let mut a = ...;
let r = &mut a;
let d = *r; // Invalid to move out value, `a` would be empty.
*r = M::new(); // invalid to store non S value, doesn't make sense.
```

- While bindings guarantee to always *hold* valid data, references guarantee to always *point to* valid data.
- Esp. `&mut T` must provide same guarantees as variables, and some more as they can't dissolve the target:
 - They do **not allow writing invalid** data.
 - They do **not allow moving out** data (would leave target empty w/o owner knowing).



```
let p: *const S = questionable_origin();
```

- In contrast to references, pointers come with almost no guarantees.
- They may point to invalid or non-existent data.
- Dereferencing them is [unsafe](#), and treating an invalid `*p` as if it were valid is undefined behavior. [↓]

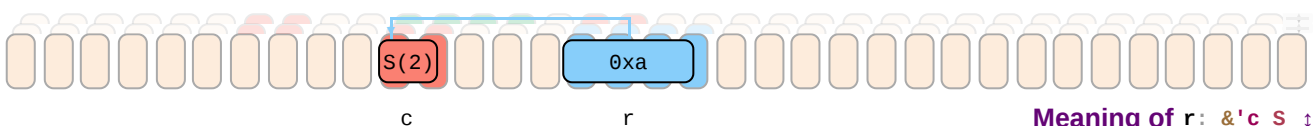
Lifetime Basics



- Every entity in a program has some (temporal / spatial) room where it is relevant, i.e., *alive*.
- Loosely speaking, this *alive time* can be¹
 1. the **LOC** (lines of code) where an **item is available** (e.g., a module name).
 2. the **LOC** between when a *location* is **initialized** with a value, and when the location is **abandoned**.
 3. the **LOC** between when a location is first **used in a certain way**, and when that **usage stops**.
 4. the **LOC (or actual time)** between when a *value* is created, and when that value is dropped.
- Within the rest of this section, we will refer to the items above as the:
 1. **scope** of that item, irrelevant here.
 2. **scope** of that variable or location.
 3. **lifetime**² of that usage.
 4. **lifetime** of that value, might be useful when discussing open file descriptors, but also irrelevant here.
- Likewise, lifetime parameters in code, e.g., `r: &'a S`, are
 - concerned with LOC any **location *r* points to** needs to be accessible or locked;
 - unrelated to the 'existence time' (as LOC) of *r* itself (well, it needs to exist shorter, that's it).
- `&'static S` means address must be *valid during all lines of code*.

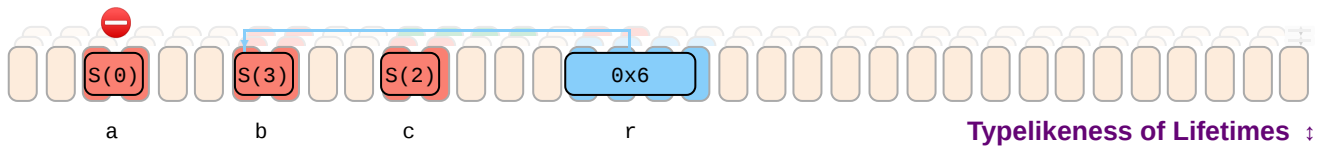
¹ There is sometimes ambiguity in the docs differentiating the various *scopes* and *lifetimes*. We try to be pragmatic here, but suggestions are welcome.

² *Live lines* might have been a more appropriate term ...



- Assume you got a `r: &'c S` from somewhere it means:

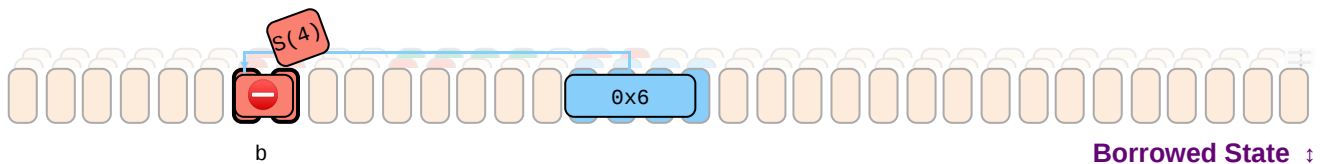
- `r` holds an address of some `S`,
- any address `r` points to must and will exist for at least `'c`,
- the variable `r` itself cannot live longer than `'c`.



```
{
  let b = S(3);
  {
    let c = S(2);
    let r: &'c S = &c; // Does not quite work since we can't name lifetimes of local
    { // variables in a function body, but very same principle applies
      let a = S(0); // to functions next page.

      r = &a; // Location of `a` does not live sufficient many lines ->
not ok.      r = &b; // Location of `b` lives all lines of `c` and more -> ok.
    }
  }
}
```

- Assume you got a `mut r: &mut 'c S` from somewhere.
 - That is, a mutable location that can hold a mutable reference.
- As mentioned, that reference must guard the targeted memory.
- However, the `'c` part, like a type, also **guards what is allowed into `r`**.
- Here assigning `&b` (`0x6`) to `r` is valid, but `&a` (`0x3`) would not, as only `&b` lives equal or longer than `&c`.

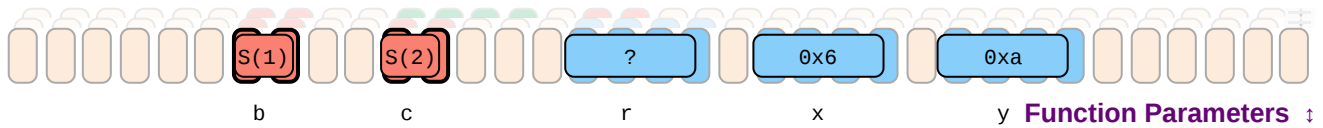


```
let mut b = S(0);
let r = &mut b;

b = S(4); // Will fail since `b` in borrowed state.

print_byte(r);
```

- Once the address of a variable is taken via `&b` or `&mut b` the variable is marked as **borrowed**.
- While borrowed, the content of the address cannot be modified anymore via original binding `b`.
- Once address taken via `&b` or `&mut b` stops being used (in terms of LOC) original binding `b` works again.

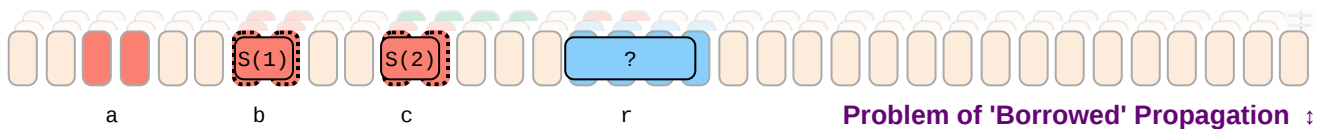


```
fn f(x: &S, y:&S) -> &u8 { ... }

let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

let r = f(&b, &c);
```

- When calling functions that take and return references two interesting things happen:
 - The used local variables are placed in a borrowed state,
 - But it is during compilation unknown which address will be returned.



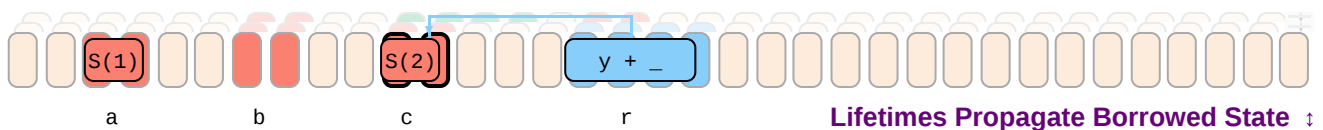
```
let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

let r = f(&b, &c);

let a = b; // Are we allowed to do this?
let a = c; // Which one is _really_ borrowed?

print_byte(r);
```

- Since `f` can return only one address, not in all cases `b` and `c` need to stay locked.
- In many cases we can get quality-of-life improvements.
 - Notably, when we know one parameter *couldn't* have been used in return value anymore.



```
fn f<'b, 'c>(x: &'b S, y: &'c S) -> &'c u8 { ... }

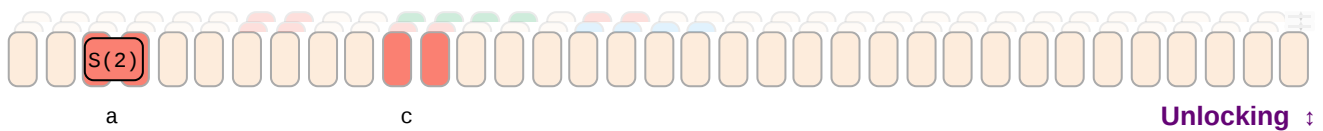
let b = S(1);
let c = S(2);

let r = f(&b, &c); // We know returned reference is `c`-based, which must stay locked,
                  // while `b` is free to move.

let a = b;

print_byte(r);
```


- Lifetime parameters in signatures, like 'c' above, solve that problem.
- Their primary purpose is:
 - **outside the function**, to explain based on which input address an output address could be generated,
 - **within the function**, to guarantee only addresses that live at least 'c' are assigned.
- The actual lifetimes 'b', 'c' are transparently picked by the compiler at **call site**, based on the borrowed variables the developer gave.
- They are **not** equal to the *scope* (which would be LOC from initialization to destruction) of b or c, but only a minimal subset of their scope called *lifetime*, that is, a minimal set of LOC based on how long b and c need to be borrowed to perform this call and use the obtained result.
- In some cases, like if f had 'c: 'b' instead, we still couldn't distinguish and both needed to stay locked.



```
let mut c = S(2);

let r = f(&c);
let s = r;

// <- Not here, `s` prolongs locking of `c`.

print_byte(s);

let a = c;      // <- But here, no more use of `r` or `s`.
```

- A variable location is *unlocked* again once the last use of any reference that may point to it ends.

† Examples expand by clicking.

Data Layout

Memory representations of common data types.

Basic Types

Essential types built into the core of the language.

Numeric Types ^{REF}

u8, i8



u16, i16



u32, i32



u64, i64



u128, i128



f32



f64



usize, isize



Same as ptr on platform.

Unsigned Types

Type	Max Value
u8	255
u16	65_535
u32	4_294_967_295
u64	18_446_744_073_709_551_615
u128	340_282_366_920_938_463_463_374_607_431_768_211_455
usize	Depending on platform pointer size, same as u16, u32, or u64.

Signed Types

Type	Max Value
i8	127
i16	32_767
i32	2_147_483_647
i64	9_223_372_036_854_775_807
i128	170_141_183_460_469_231_731_687_303_715_884_105_727
isize	Depending on platform pointer size, same as i16, i32, or i64.

Type	Min Value
i8	-128
i16	-32_768
i32	-2_147_483_648
i64	-9_223_372_036_854_775_808
i128	-170_141_183_460_469_231_731_687_303_715_884_105_728

Operation ¹	Gives	Note
<code>200_u8 / 0_u8</code>	Compile error.	-
<code>200_u8 / _0^d</code>	Panic.	Regular math may panic; here: division by zero.
<code>200_u8 / _0^r</code>	Panic.	Same.
<code>200_u8 + 200_u8</code>	Compile error.	-
<code>200_u8 + _200^d</code>	Panic.	Consider <code>checked_</code> , <code>wrapping_</code> , ... instead. ^{STD}
<code>200_u8 + _200^r</code>	144	In release mode this will overflow.
<code>1_u8 / 2_u8</code>	0	Other integer division truncates.
<code>0.8_f32 + 0.1_f32</code>	0.90000004	-
<code>1.0_f32 / 0.0_f32</code>	<code>f32::INFINITY</code>	-
<code>0.0_f32 / 0.0_f32</code>	<code>f32::NaN</code>	-

¹ Expression `_100` means anything that might contain the value `100`, e.g., `100_i32`, but is opaque to compiler.

^d Debug build.

^r Release build.

Textual Types ^{REF}

char



Any UTF-8 scalar.

str



Rarely seen alone, but as `&str` instead.

Type	Description
<code>char</code>	Always 4 bytes and only holds a single Unicode scalar value [♂] .
<code>str</code>	An <code>u8</code> -array of unknown length guaranteed to hold UTF-8 encoded code points .

Chars	Description
<code>let c = 'a';</code>	Often a <code>char</code> (unicode scalar) can coincide with your intuition of <i>character</i> .
<code>let c = '❤️';</code>	It can also hold many Unicode symbols.
<code>let c = '❤️';</code>	But not always. Given emoji is two <code>char</code> (see Encoding) and can't ● be held by <code>c</code> . ¹
<code>c = 0xffff_ffff;</code>	Also, chars are not allowed ● to hold arbitrary bit patterns.
¹ Fun fact, due to the Zero-width joiner (<code> </code>) what the user <i>perceives</i> as a <i>character</i> can get even more unpredictable: <code>👨‍👩‍👧</code> is in fact 5 chars <code>👨👩👧 👨👩👧</code> , and rendering engines are free to either show them fused as one, or separately as three, depending on their abilities.	
Strings	Description

Strings	Description
<code>let s = "a";</code>	A <code>str</code> is usually never held directly, but as <code>&str</code> , like <code>s</code> here.
<code>let s = "❤️❤️";</code>	It can hold arbitrary text, has variable length per c., and is hard to index.

Encoding

```
let s = "I ❤️ Rust";
let t = "I ❤️❤️ Rust";
```

Variant	Memory Representation ²
<code>s.as_bytes()</code>	49 20 e2 9d a4 20 52 75 73 74 ³
<code>s.chars()</code> ¹	49 00 00 00 20 00 00 00 64 27 00 00 20 00 00 00 52 00 00 00 75 00 00 00 73 00 ...
<code>t.as_bytes()</code>	49 20 e2 9d a4 ef b8 8f 20 52 75 73 74 ⁴
<code>t.chars()</code> ¹	49 00 00 00 20 00 00 00 64 27 00 00 0f fe 01 00 20 00 00 00 52 00 00 00 75 00 ...

¹ Result then collected into array and transmuted to bytes.

² Values given in hex, on x86.

³ Notice how ❤️, having [Unicode Code Point \(U+2764\)](#), is represented as `64 27 00 00` inside the `char`, but got [UTF-8 encoded to e2 9d a4](#) in the `str`.

⁴ Also observe how the emoji [Red Heart ❤️](#), is a combination of ❤️ and the [U+FE0F Variation Selector](#), thus `t` has a higher char count than `s`.

🐞 For what seem to be browser bugs Safari and Edge render the hearts in Footnote 3 and 4 wrong, despite being able to differentiate them correctly in `s` and `t` above.

Custom Types

Basic types definable by users. Actual **layout** ^{REF} is subject to **representation**; ^{REF} padding can be present.

`T`

Sized ¹

`T: ?Sized`

Maybe DST ¹

`[T; n]`

Fixed array of `n` elements.

`[T]`

Slice type of unknown-many elements. Neither **Sized** (nor carries `len` information), and most often lives behind reference as `&[T]`. ¹

`struct S;`

Zero-Sized ¹

`(A, B, C)`

or maybe

Unless a representation is forced (e.g., via `#[repr(C)]`), type layout unspecified.

`struct S { b: B, c: C }`

or maybe

Compiler may also add padding.

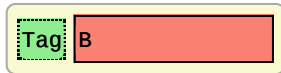
Also note, two types `A(X, Y)` and `B(X, Y)` with exactly the same fields can still have differing layout; never `transmute()` without representation guarantees.

These **sum types** hold a value of one of their sub types:

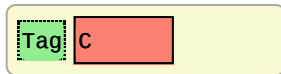
`enum E { A, B, C }`



exclusive or

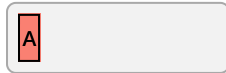


exclusive or

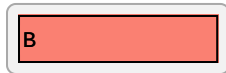


Safely holds A or B or C, also called 'tagged union', though compiler may omit tag.

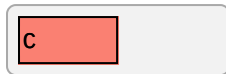
`union { ... }`



unsafe or



unsafe or

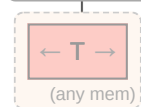


Can unsafely reinterpret memory. Result might be undefined.

References & Pointers

References give safe access to other memory, raw pointers `unsafe` access. The respective `mut` types are identical.

`&'a T`



Must target some valid `t` of `T`,
and any such target must exist for
at least `'a`.

`*const T`

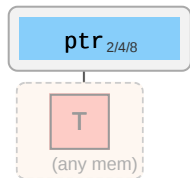


No guarantees.

Pointer Meta

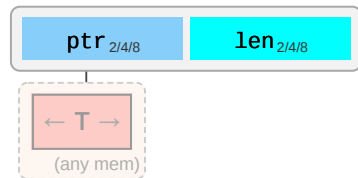
Many reference and pointer types can carry an extra field, **pointer metadata**. ^{STD} It can be the element- or byte-length of the target, or a pointer to a *vtable*. Pointers with meta are called **fat**, otherwise **thin**.

&'a T



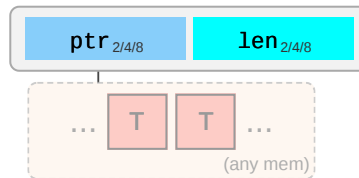
No meta for sized target. (pointer is thin).

&'a T



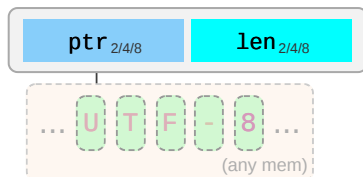
If `T` is a DST struct such as `S { x: [u8] }` meta field `len` is length of dyn. sized content.

&'a [T]



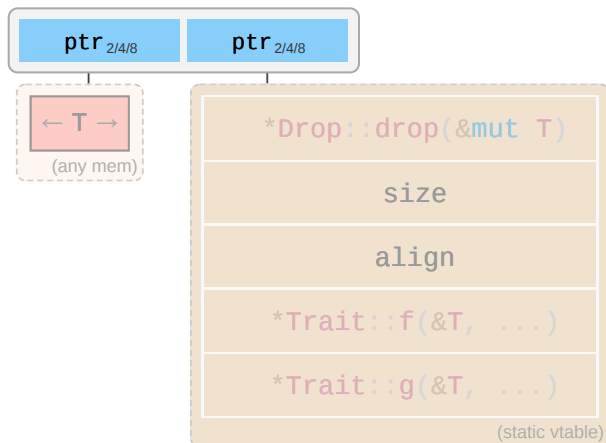
Regular slice reference (i.e., the reference type of a slice type `[T]`)[†] often seen as `&[T]` if `'a` elided.

&'a str



String slice reference (i.e., the reference type of string type `str`), with meta `len` being byte length.

&'a dyn Trait

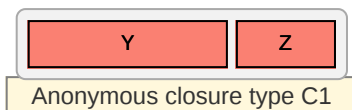


Meta points to vtable, where `*Drop::drop()`, `*Trait::f()`, ... are pointers to their respective `impl` for `T`.

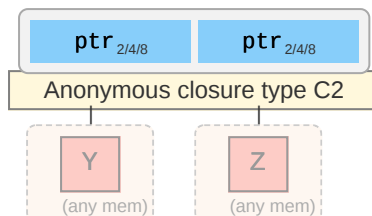
Closures

Ad-hoc functions with an automatically managed data block **capturing**^{REF} environment where closure was defined. For example:

`move |x| x + y.f() + z`



`|x| x + y.f() + z`

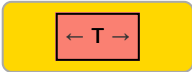


Also produces anonymous `fn` such as `fc1(C1, x)` or `fc2(C2, x)`. Details depend which `FnOnce`, `FnMut`, `Fn` ... is supported, based on properties of captured types.

Standard Library Types

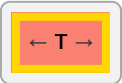
Rust's standard library combines the above primitive types into useful types with special semantics, e.g.:

UnsafeCell<T>



Magic type allowing aliased mutability.

Cell<T>



Allows T's to move in and out.

RefCell<T>



Also support dynamic borrowing of T. Like Cell this is Send, but not Sync.

AtomicUsize

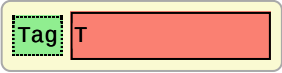


Other atomic similarly.

Result<T, E>



or



Option<T>



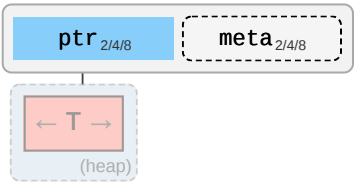
or



Tag may be omitted for certain T, e.g., NonNull.

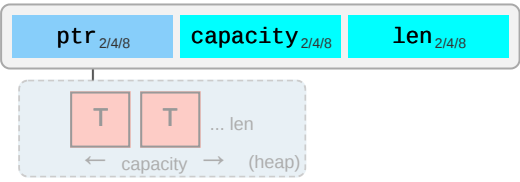
General Purpose Heap Storage

Box<T>



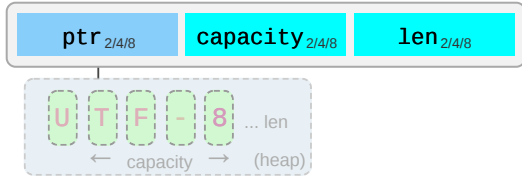
For some T stack proxy may carry meta (e.g., Box<T>).

Vec<T>



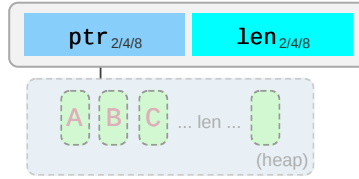
Owned Strings

String



Observe how `String` differs from `&str` and `&[char]`.

CString



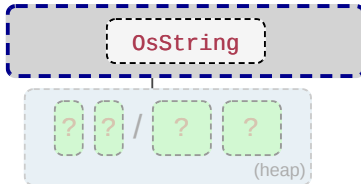
NUL-terminated but w/o NUL in middle.

OsString ?



Encapsulates how operating system represents strings (e.g., UTF-16 on Windows).

PathBuf ?

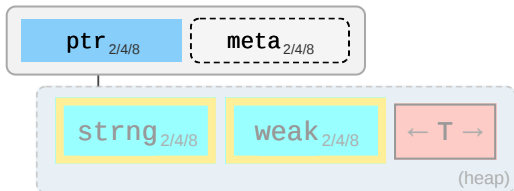


Encapsulates how operating system represents paths.

Shared Ownership

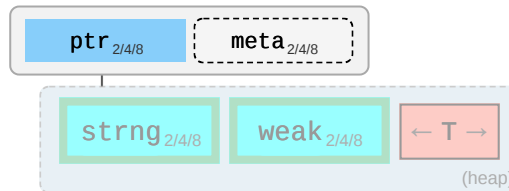
If the type does not contain a `Cell` for `T`, these are often combined with one of the `Cell` types above to allow shared de-facto mutability.

Rc<T>



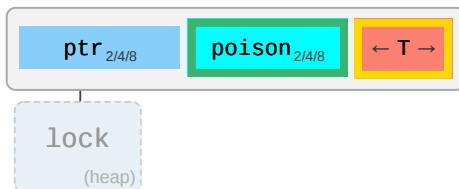
Share ownership of `T` in same thread. Needs nested `Cell` or `RefCell` to allow mutation. Is neither `Send` nor `Sync`.

Arc<T>



Same, but allow sharing between threads IF contained `T` itself is `Send` and `Sync`.

Mutex<T> / RwLock<T>



Needs to be held in `Arc` to be shared between threads, always `Send` and `Sync`. Consider using `parking_lot` instead (faster, no heap usage).

Standard Library

One-Liners

Snippets that are common, but still easy to forget. See [Rust Cookbook](#) for more.

Strings

Intent	Snippet
Concatenate strings (any <code>Display</code> ¹ that is). ¹	<code>format!("{}", x, y)</code>
Split by separator pattern. <code>STD</code> 	<code>s.split(pattern)</code>
... with <code>&str</code>	<code>s.split("abc")</code>
... with <code>char</code>	<code>s.split('/')</code>
... with closure	<code>s.split(char::is_numeric)</code>
Split by whitespace.	<code>s.split_whitespace()</code>
Split by newlines.	<code>s.lines()</code>
Split by regular expression. ²	<code>Regex::new(r"\s").split("one two three")</code>

¹ Allocates; might not be fastest solution if `x` is `String` already.

² Requires `regex` crate.

I/O

Intent	Snippet
Create a new file	<code>File::create(PATH)?</code>
Same, via <code>OpenOptions</code>	<code>OpenOptions::new().create(true).write(true).truncate(true).open(PATH)?</code>

Macros

Intent	Snippet
Macro w. variable arguments	<code>macro_rules! var_args { (\$(\$args:expr), *) => {{ }} }</code>
Using args, e.g., calling <code>f</code> multiple times.	<code>\$(f(\$args);)*</code>

Esoterics

Intent	Snippet
Cleaner closure captures	<code>wants_closure({ let c = outer.clone(); move use_clone(c) })</code>
Fix inference in 'try' closures	<code>iter.try_for_each(x { Ok::<(), Error>(()) })?;</code>
Iterate <i>and</i> edit <code>&mut [T]</code> if <code>T</code> Copy.	<code>Cell::from_mut(mut_slice).as_slice_of_cells()</code>
Get subslice with length.	<code>&original_slice[offset..][..length]</code>
Canary to ensure trait <code>T</code> is object safe.	<code>const _: Option<&dyn T> = None;</code>

Thread Safety

Examples	Send*	!Send
Sync*	Most types ... Mutex<T>, Arc<T> ^{1,2}	MutexGuard<T> ¹ , RwLockReadGuard<T> ¹
!Sync	Cell<T> ² , RefCell<T> ²	Rc<T>, &dyn Trait, *const T ³ , *mut T ³

* An instance `t` where `T: Send` can be moved to another thread, a `T: Sync` means `&t` can be moved to another thread.

¹ If `T` is `Sync`.

² If `T` is `Send`.

³ If you need to send a raw pointer, create newtype `struct Ptr(*const u8)` and `unsafe impl Send for Ptr {}`. Just ensure you *may* send it.

Iterators

Obtaining Iterators

Basics

Assume you have a collection `c` of type `C`:

- `c.into_iter()` — Turns collection `c` into an `Iterator` `i` and **consumes** `c`. Requires `IntoIterator` for `C` to be implemented. Type of item depends on what `C` was. 'Standardized' way to get Iterators.
- `c.iter()` — Courtesy method **some** collections provide, returns **borrowing** Iterator, doesn't consume `c`.
- `c.iter_mut()` — Same, but **mutably borrowing** Iterator that allow collection to be changed.

The Iterator

Once you have an `i`:

- `i.next()` — Returns `Some(x)` next element `c` provides, or `None` if we're done.

For Loops

- `for x in c {}` — Syntactic sugar, calls `c.into_iter()` and loops `i` until `None`.

* If it looks as if it doesn't consume `c` that's because type was `Copy`. For example, if you call `(&c).into_iter()` it will invoke `.into_iter()` on `&c` (which will consume the reference and turn it into an Iterator), but `c` remains untouched.

Implementing Iterators

Basics

Let's assume you have a `struct Collection<T> {}`.

- `struct IntoIter<T> {}` — Create a struct to hold your iteration status (e.g., an index) for value iteration.
- `impl Iterator for IntoIter {}` — Implement `Iterator::next()` so it can produce elements.

Collection<T>

IntoIter<T>

Iterator

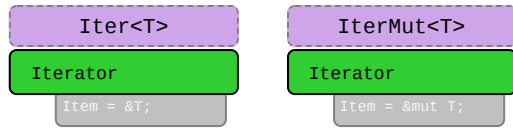
Item = T;

Shared & Mutable Iterators

- `struct Iter<T> {}` — Create struct holding `&Collection<T>` for shared iteration.
- `struct IterMut<T> {}` — Similar, but holding `&mut Collection<T>` for mutable iteration.
- `impl Iterator for Iter<T> {}` — Implement shared iteration.
- `impl Iterator for IterMut<T> {}` — Implement mutable iteration.

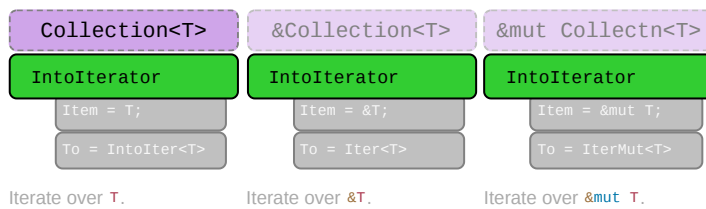
In addition, you might want to add convenience methods:

- `Collection::iter(&self) -> Iter,`
- `Collection::iter_mut(&mut self) -> IterMut.`



Making Loops Work

- `impl IntoIterator for Collection {}` — Now `for x in c {}` works.
- `impl IntoIterator for &Collection {}` — Now `for x in &c {}` works.
- `impl IntoIterator for &mut Collection {}` — Now `for x in &mut c {}` works.



Number Conversions

As-correct-as-it-currently-gets number conversions.

↓ Have / Want →	u8 ... i128	f32 / f64	String
u8 ... i128	<code>u8::try_from(x)?</code> ¹	<code>x as f32</code> ³	<code>x.to_string()</code>
f32 / f64	<code>x as u8</code> ²	<code>x as f32</code>	<code>x.to_string()</code>
String	<code>x.parse:::<u8>()</code> ?	<code>x.parse:::<f32>()</code> ?	<code>x</code>

¹ If type true subset `from()` works directly, e.g., `u32::from(my_u8)`.

² Truncating (`11.9_f32 as u8` gives `11`) and saturating (`1024_f32 as u8` gives `255`); c. below.

³ Might misrepresent number (`u64::MAX as f32`) or produce `Inf` (`u128::MAX as f32`).

String Conversions

If you want a string of type ...

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
String	x

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
CString	<code>x.into_string()</code> [?]
OsString	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
PathBuf	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
Vec <u8< u="">¹</u8<>	<code>String::from_utf8(x)</code> [?]
&str	<code>x.to_string()</code> ⁱ
&CStr	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
&OsStr	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
&Path	<code>x.to_str()?.to_string()</code>
&[u8] ¹	<code>String::from_utf8_lossy(x).to_string()</code>

CString

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
String	<code>CString::new(x)</code> [?]
CString	<code>x</code>
OsString ²	<code>CString::new(x.to_str())?</code> [?]
PathBuf	<code>CString::new(x.to_str())?</code> [?]
Vec <u8< u="">¹</u8<>	<code>CString::new(x)</code> [?]
&str	<code>CString::new(x)</code> [?]
&CStr	<code>x.to_owned()</code> ⁱ
&OsStr ²	<code>CString::new(x.to_os_string().into_string())?</code> [?]
&Path	<code>CString::new(x.to_str())?</code> [?]
&[u8] ¹	<code>CString::new(Vec::from(x))?</code> [?]
*mut c_char ³	<code>unsafe { CString::from_raw(x) }</code>

OsString

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
String	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
CString	<code>OsString::from(x.to_str())?</code>
OsString	<code>x</code>
PathBuf	<code>x.into_os_string()</code>
Vec <u8< u="">¹</u8<>	<code>?</code>
&str	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
&CStr	<code>OsString::from(x.to_str())?</code>
&OsStr	<code>OsString::from(x)</code> ⁱ
&Path	<code>x.as_os_str().to_owned()</code>

If you have `x` of type ...

Use this ...

`&[u8]` ¹

?

PathBuf

If you have `x` of type ...

Use this ...

`String`

`PathBuf::from(x)` ¹

`CString`

`PathBuf::from(x.to_str())?`

`OsString`

`PathBuf::from(x)` ¹

`PathBuf`

`x`

`Vec<u8>` ¹

?

`&str`

`PathBuf::from(x)` ¹

`&CStr`

`PathBuf::from(x.to_str())?`

`&OsStr`

`PathBuf::from(x)` ¹

`&Path`

`PathBuf::from(x)` ¹

`&[u8]` ¹

?

Vec<u8>

If you have `x` of type ...

Use this ...

`String`

`x.into_bytes()`

`CString`

`x.into_bytes()`

`OsString`

?

`PathBuf`

?

`Vec<u8>` ¹

`x`

`&str`

`Vec::from(x.as_bytes())`

`&CStr`

`Vec::from(x.to_bytes_with_nul())`

`&OsStr`

?

`&Path`

?

`&[u8]` ¹

`x.to_vec()`

`&str`

If you have `x` of type ...

Use this ...

`String`

`x.as_str()`

`CString`

`x.to_str()?`

`OsString`

`x.to_str()?`

`PathBuf`

`x.to_str()?`

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
<code>Vec<u8></code> ¹	<code>std::str::from_utf8(&x)?</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()? </code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x.to_str()? </code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x.to_str()? </code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>std::str::from_utf8(x)?</code>

`&CStr`

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>CString::new(x)?.as_c_str()</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.as_c_str()</code>
<code>OsString</code> ²	<code>x.to_str()? </code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>? ,4</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code> ^{1,5}	<code>CStr::from_bytes_with_nul(&x)?</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>? ,4</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&OsStr</code> ²	<code>? </code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>? </code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ^{1,5}	<code>CStr::from_bytes_with_nul(x)?</code>
<code>*const c_char</code> ¹	<code>unsafe { CStr::from_ptr(x) }</code>

`&OsStr`

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>OsStr::new(&x)</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>? </code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code> ¹	<code>? </code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>OsStr::new(x)</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>? </code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x.as_os_str()</code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>? </code>

`&Path`

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>Path::new(x)</code> ^r
<code>CString</code>	<code>Path::new(x.to_str())</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>Path::new(x.to_str())</code> ^r
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>Path::new(x.to_str())</code> ^r
<code>Vec<u8></code> ¹	<code>?</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>Path::new(x)</code> ^r
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>Path::new(x.to_str())</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>Path::new(x)</code> ^r
<code>&Path</code>	<code>x</code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>?</code>

`&[u8]`

If you have x of type ...	Use this ...
<code>String</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code> ¹	<code>&x</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>x.to_bytes_with_nul()</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>x.as_bytes()</code> ²
<code>&Path</code>	<code>?</code>
<code>&[u8]</code> ¹	<code>x</code>

Other

You want	And have x	Use this ...
<code>*const c_char</code>	<code>CString</code>	<code>x.as_ptr()</code>

ⁱ Short form `x.into()` possible if type can be inferred.

^r Short form `x.as_ref()` possible if type can be inferred.

¹ You should, or must if call is `unsafe`, ensure raw data comes with a valid representation for the string type (e.g., UTF-8 data for a `String`). ^d

² Only on some platforms `std::os::<your_os>::ffi::OsStrExt` exists with helper methods to get a raw `&[u8]` representation of the underlying `OsStr`. Use the rest of the table to go from there, e.g.:

```
use std::os::unix::ffi::OsStrExt;
let bytes: &[u8] = my_os_str.as_bytes();
CString::new(bytes)?
```


³ The `c_char` **must** have come from a previous `CString`. If it comes from FFI see `&CStr` instead.

⁴ No known shorthand as `x` will lack terminating `0x0`. Best way to probably go via `CString`.

⁵ Must ensure vector actually ends with `0x0`.

String Output

How to convert types into a `String`, or output them.

APIs

Rust has, among others, these APIs to convert types to stringified output, collectively called *format* macros:

Macro	Output	Notes
<code>format!(fmt)</code>	<code>String</code>	Bread-and-butter "to <code>String</code> " converter.
<code>println!(fmt)</code>	Console	Writes to standard output.
<code>println!(fmt)</code>	Console	Writes to standard output.
<code>eprintln!(fmt)</code>	Console	Writes to standard error.
<code>eprintln!(fmt)</code>	Console	Writes to standard error.
<code>write!(dst, fmt)</code>	Buffer	Don't forget to also <code>use std::io::Write;</code>
<code>writeln!(dst, fmt)</code>	Buffer	Don't forget to also <code>use std::io::Write;</code>

Method	Notes
<code>x.to_string()</code> <small>STD</small>	Produces <code>String</code> , implemented for any <code>Display</code> type.

Here `fmt` is string literal such as `"hello {}"`, that specifies output (compare "Formatting" tab) and additional parameters.

Printable Types

In `format!` and friends, types convert via trait `Display` `"{}"` STD or `Debug` `"{:?}"` STD , non exhaustive list:

Type	Implements
<code>String</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>CString</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>OsString</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>PathBuf</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>Vec<u8></code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&str</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>&CStr</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&OsStr</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&Path</code>	<code>Debug</code>
<code>&[u8]</code>	<code>Debug</code>

Type	Implements
<code>bool</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>char</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>u8 ... i128</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>f32</code> , <code>f64</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>!</code>	<code>Debug</code> , <code>Display</code>
<code>()</code>	<code>Debug</code>

In short, pretty much everything is `Debug`; more *special* types might need special handling or conversion `!` to `Display`.

Formatting

Each argument designator in format macro is either empty `{}`, `{argument}`, or follows a basic [syntax](#):

```
{ [argument] ':' [[fill] align] [sign] ['#'] [width [$]] ['.' precision [$]] [type] }
```

Element	Meaning
argument	Number (<code>0</code> , <code>1</code> , ...) or argument name, e.g., <code>println!("{x}", x = 3)</code> .
fill	The character to fill empty spaces with (e.g., <code>0</code>), if width is specified.
align	Left (<code><</code>), center (<code>^</code>), or right (<code>></code>), if width is specified.
sign	Can be <code>+</code> for sign to always be printed.
#	Alternate formatting , e.g. prettify <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} formatter <code>?</code> or prefix hex with <code>0x</code> .
width	Minimum width (≥ 0), padding with fill (default to space). If starts with <code>0</code> , zero-padded.
precision	Decimal digits (≥ 0) for numerics, or max width for non-numerics.
\$	Interpret width or precision as argument identifier instead to allow for dynamic formatting.
type	<code>Debug</code> ^{STD} (<code>?</code>) formatting, hex (<code>x</code>), binary (<code>b</code>), octal (<code>o</code>), pointer (<code>p</code>), exp (<code>e</code>) ... see more .







Format Example	Explanation
<code>{}</code>	Print the next argument using <code>Display</code> ^{STD}
<code>{:?}</code>	Print the next argument using <code>Debug</code> ^{STD}
<code>{2:#?}</code>	Pretty-print the 3 rd argument with <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} formatting.
<code>{val:^2\$}</code>	Center the <code>val</code> named argument, width specified by the 3 rd argument.
<code>{:<10.3}</code>	Left align with width 10 and a precision of 3.
<code>{val:#x}</code>	Format <code>val</code> argument as hex, with a leading <code>0x</code> (alternate format for <code>x</code>).

Full Example	Explanation
<code>println!("{}", x)</code>	Print <code>x</code> using <code>Display</code> ^{STD} on std. out and append new line.
<code>format!("{a:.3} {b:?}", a = PI, b = 2)</code>	Convert <code>PI</code> with 3 digits, add space, <code>b</code> with <code>Debug</code> ^{STD} , return <code>String</code> .

Tooling

Project Anatomy

Basic project layout, and common files and folders, as used by cargo. ¹

Entry	Code
 .cargo/	Project-local cargo configuration , may contain config.toml . ²
 benches/	Benchmarks for your crate, run via cargo bench , requires nightly by default. * 
 examples/	Examples how to use your crate, they see your crate like external user would.
my_example.rs	Individual examples are run like cargo run --example my_example .
 src/	Actual source code for your project.
main.rs	Default entry point for applications, this is what cargo run uses.
lib.rs	Default entry point for libraries. This is where lookup for <code>my_crate::f()</code> starts.
 tests/	Integration tests go here, invoked via cargo test . Unit tests often stay in <code>src/</code> file.
.rustfmt.toml	In case you want to customize how cargo fmt works.
.clippy.toml	Special configuration for certain clippy lints , utilized via cargo clippy
build.rs	Pre-build script , ³ useful when compiling C / FFI, ...
Cargo.toml	Main project manifest , ⁴ Defines dependencies, artifacts ...
Cargo.lock	Dependency details for reproducible builds, recommended to git for apps, not for libs.

¹ On stable consider [Criterion](#).

Minimal examples for various entry points might look like:

Applications

```
// src/main.rs (default application entry point)

fn main() {
    println!("Hello, world!");
}
```

Libraries

```
// src/lib.rs (default library entry point)

pub fn f() {}           // Is a public item in root, so it's accessible from the outside.

mod m {
    pub fn g() {}       // No public path (`m` not public) from root, so `g`
                        // is not accessible from the outside of the crate.
}
```

Unit Tests

```
// src/my_module.rs (any file of your project)

fn f() -> u32 { 0 }

#[cfg(test)]
mod test {
    use super::f;           // Need to import items from parent module. Has
                           // access to non-public members.

    #[test]
    fn ff() {
        assert_eq!(f(), 0);
    }
}
```

Integration Tests

```
// tests/sample.rs (sample integration test)

#[test]
fn my_sample() {
    assert_eq!(my_crate::f(), 123); // Integration tests (and benchmarks) 'depend' to the
    crate like                      // a 3rd party would. Hence, they only see public items.
}
```

Benchmarks

```
// benches/sample.rs (sample benchmark)

#![feature(test)] // #[bench] is still experimental

extern crate test; // Even in '18 this is needed ... for reasons.
                  // Normally you don't need this in '18 code.

use test::{black_box, Bencher};

#[bench]
fn my_algo(b: &mut Bencher) {
    b.iter(|| black_box(my_crate::f())); // `black_box` prevents `f` from being optimized away.
}
```

Build Scripts

```
// build.rs (sample pre-build script)

fn main() {
    // You need to rely on env. vars for target; `[cfg(...)]` are for host.
    let target_os = env::var("CARGO_CFG_TARGET_OS");
}
```

*[See here for list](#) of environment variables set.

Proc Macros

```
// src/lib.rs (default entry point for proc macros)

extern crate proc_macro; // Apparently needed to be imported like this.

use proc_macro::TokenStream;

#[proc_macro_attribute] // Can now be used as `[my_attribute]`
pub fn my_attribute(_attr: TokenStream, item: TokenStream) -> TokenStream {
    item
}
```

```
// Cargo.toml


[package]
name = "my_crate"
version = "0.1.0"

[lib]
proc-macro = true
```

Module trees and imports:

Module Trees

Modules ^{BK EX REF} and **source files** work as follows:

- **Module tree** needs to be explicitly defined, is **not** implicitly built from **file system tree**. 
- **Module tree root** equals library, app, ... entry point (e.g., `lib.rs`).

Actual **module definitions** work as follows:

- A `mod m {}` defines module in-file, while `mod m;` will read `m.rs` or `m/mod.rs`.

- Path of `.rs` based on **nesting**, e.g., `mod a { mod b { mod c; } }` is either `a/b/c.rs` or `a/b/c/mod.rs`.
- Files not pathed from module tree root via some `mod m`; won't be touched by compiler! ●

Namespaces

Rust has three kinds of **namespaces**:

Namespace <i>Types</i>	Namespace <i>Functions</i>	Namespace <i>Macros</i>
<code>mod X {}</code>	<code>fn X() {}</code>	<code>macro_rules! X { ... }</code>
<code>X (crate)</code>	<code>const X: u8 = 1;</code>	
<code>trait X {}</code>	<code>static X: u8 = 1;</code>	
<code>enum X {}</code>		
<code>union X {}</code>		
<code>struct X {}</code>		
	<code>struct X;¹</code>	
	<code>struct X();¹</code>	

¹ Counts in *Types* and in *Functions*.

- In any given scope, for example within a module, only one item per namespace can exist, e.g.,
 - `enum X {}` and `fn X() {}` can coexist
 - `struct X;` and `const X` cannot coexist
- With a `use my_mod: X;` all items called `X` will be imported.

Due to naming conventions (e.g., `fn` and `mod` are lowercase by convention) and *common sense* (most developers just don't name all things `X`) you won't have to worry about these *kinds* in most cases. They can, however, be a factor when designing macros.

Cargo

Commands and tools that are good to know.

Command	Description
<code>cargo init</code>	Create a new project for the latest edition.
<code>cargo build</code>	Build the project in debug mode (<code>--release</code> for all optimization).
<code>cargo check</code>	Check if project would compile (much faster).
<code>cargo test</code>	Run tests for the project.
<code>cargo doc --open</code>	Locally generate documentation for your code and dependencies.
<code>cargo run</code>	Run your project, if a binary is produced (<code>main.rs</code>).
<code>cargo run --bin b</code>	Run binary <code>b</code> . Unifies features with other dependents (can be confusing).
<code>cargo run -p w</code>	Run main of sub-workspace <code>w</code> . Treats features more as you would expect.
<code>cargo tree</code>	Show dependency graph.
<code>cargo +{nightly, stable} ...</code>	Use given toolchain for command, e.g., for 'nightly only' tools.

Command	Description
<code>cargo +nightly ...</code>	Some nightly-only commands (substitute ... with command below)
<code>build -Z timings</code>	Show what crates caused your build to take so long, highly useful. 🕒 🔥
<code>rustc -- -Zunpretty=expanded</code>	Show expanded macros. 📄
<code>rustup doc</code>	Open offline Rust documentation (incl. the books), good on a plane!

A command like `cargo build` means you can either type `cargo build` or just `cargo b`.

These are optional `rustup` components. Install them with `rustup component add [tool]`.

Tool	Description
<code>cargo clippy</code>	Additional (lints) catching common API misuses and unidiomatic code. 🔗
<code>cargo fmt</code>	Automatic code formatter (<code>rustup component add rustfmt</code>). 🔗

A large number of additional cargo plugins [can be found here](#).

Cross Compilation

- 🔵 Check [target is supported](#).
- 🔵 Install target via `rustup target install X`.
- 🔵 Install native toolchain (required to *link*, depends on target).

Get from target vendor (Google, Apple, ...), might not be available on all hosts (e.g., no iOS toolchain on Windows).

Some toolchains require additional build steps (e.g., Android's `make-standalone-toolchain.sh`).

- 🔵 Update `~/.cargo/config.toml` like this:

```
[target.aarch64-linux-android]
linker = "[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]/aarch64-linux-android/bin/aarch64-linux-android-clang"
```

or

```
[target.aarch64-linux-android]
linker = "C:/[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]/prebuilt/windows-x86_64/bin/aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd"
```

- 🔵 Set **environment variables** (optional, wait until compiler complains before setting):

```
set CC=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd
set CXX=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\aarch64-linux-android21-clang.cmd
set AR=C:\[PATH_TO_TOOLCHAIN]\prebuilt\windows-x86_64\bin\aarch64-linux-android-ar.exe
...
```

Whether you set them depends on how compiler complains, not necessarily all are needed.

Some platforms / configurations can be **extremely sensitive** how paths are specified (e.g., `\` vs `/`) and quoted.

✓ Compile with `cargo build --target=X`

Tooling Directives

Special tokens embedded in source code used by tooling or preprocessing.

Macros

Inside a **declarative** ^{BK} **macro by example** ^{BK EX REF} `macro_rules!` implementation these work:

Within Macros	Explanation
<code>\$x:ty</code>	Macro capture (here a type).
<code>\$x:item</code>	An item, like a function, struct, module, etc.
<code>\$x:block</code>	A block <code>{ }</code> of statements or expressions, e.g., <code>{ let x = 5; }</code>
<code>\$x:stmt</code>	A statement, e.g., <code>let x = 1 + 1;</code> , <code>String::new();</code> or <code>vec![];</code>
<code>\$x:expr</code>	An expression, e.g., <code>x</code> , <code>1 + 1</code> , <code>String::new()</code> or <code>vec![]</code>
<code>\$x:pat</code>	A pattern, e.g., <code>Some(t)</code> , <code>(17, 'a')</code> or <code>_</code> .
<code>\$x:ty</code>	A type, e.g., <code>String</code> , <code>usize</code> or <code>Vec<u8></code> .
<code>\$x:ident</code>	An identifier, for example in <code>let x = 0;</code> the identifier is <code>x</code> .
<code>\$x:path</code>	A path (e.g. <code>foo</code> , <code>::std::mem::replace</code> , <code>transmute::<_, int></code>).
<code>\$x:literal</code>	A literal (e.g. <code>3</code> , <code>"foo"</code> , <code>b"bar"</code> , etc.).
<code>\$x:lifetime</code>	A lifetime (e.g. <code>'a</code> , <code>'static</code> , etc.).
<code>\$x:meta</code>	A meta item; the things that go inside <code>#[...]</code> and <code>#![...]</code> attributes.
<code>\$x:vis</code>	A visibility modifier; <code>pub</code> , <code>pub(crate)</code> , etc.
<code>\$x:tt</code>	A single token tree, see here for more details.
<code>\$crate</code>	Special hygiene variable, crate where macros is defined. [?]

Documentation

Inside a **doc comment** ^{BK EX REF} these work:

Within Doc Comments	Explanation
<code>````...````</code>	Include a doc test (doc code running on cargo test).
<code>````X,Y ...````</code>	Same, and include optional configurations; with <code>X</code> , <code>Y</code> being ...
<code>rust</code>	Make it explicit test is written in Rust; implied by Rust tooling.
<code>-</code>	Compile test. Run test. Fail if panic. Default behavior.
<code>should_panic</code>	Compile test. Run test. Execution should panic. If not, fail test.
<code>no_run</code>	Compile test. Fail test if code can't be compiled, Don't run test.
<code>compile_fail</code>	Compile test but fail test if code <i>can</i> be compiled.
<code>ignore</code>	Do not compile. Do not run. Prefer option above instead.
<code>edition2018</code>	Execute code as Rust '18; default is '15.
<code>#</code>	Hide line from documentation (<code>```` # use x::hidden; ````</code>).
<code>[`S`]</code>	Create a link to struct, enum, trait, function, ... <code>S</code> .

Within Doc Comments

Explanation

```
[`S`](crate::S)
```

Paths can also be used, in the form of markdown links.

```
#![globals]
```

Attributes affecting the whole crate or app:

Opt-Out's	On	Explanation
<code>#![no_std]</code>	C	Don't (automatically) import <code>std</code> ^{STD} ; use <code>core</code> ^{STD} instead. REF
<code>#![no_implicit_prelude]</code>	CM	Don't add <code>prelude</code> ^{STD} , need to manually import <code>None</code> , <code>Vec</code> , ... REF
<code>#![no_main]</code>	C	Don't emit <code>main()</code> in apps if you do that yourself. REF
Opt-In's	On	Explanation
<code>#![feature(a, b, c)]</code>	C	Rely on features that may never get stabilized, c. Unstable Book . 🚧
Builds	On	Explanation
<code>#![windows_subsystem = "x"]</code>	C	On Windows, make a console or windows app. REF
<code>#![crate_name = "x"]</code>	C	Specify current crate name, e.g., when not using cargo. ? REF
<code>#![crate_type = "bin"]</code>	C	Specify current crate type (bin, lib, dylib, cdylib, ...). REF
<code>#![recursion_limit = "123"]</code>	C	Set <i>compile-time</i> recursion limit for deref, macros, ... REF
<code>#![type_length_limit = "456"]</code>	C	Limits maximum number of type substitutions. REF
Handlers	On	Explanation
<code>#[panic_handler]</code>	F	Make some <code>fn f(&PanicInfo) -> !</code> app's panic handler . REF
<code>#[global_allocator]</code>	S	Make static item impl. <code>GlobalAlloc</code> ^{STD} global allocator . REF

```
#[code]
```

Attributes primarily governing emitted code:

Developer UX	On	Explanation
<code>#[non_exhaustive]</code>	T	Future-proof <code>struct</code> or <code>enum</code> ; hint it may grow in future. REF
<code>#[path = "x.rs"]</code>	M	Get module from non-standard file. REF
Codegen	On	Explanation
<code>#[inline]</code>	F	Nicely suggest compiler should inline function at call sites. REF
<code>#[inline(always)]</code>	F	Emphatically threaten compiler to inline call, or else. REF
<code>#[inline(never)]</code>	F	Instruct compiler to feel disappointed if it still inlines the function. REF
<code>#[cold]</code>	F	Hint that function probably isn't going to be called. REF
<code>#[target_feature(enable="x")]</code>	F	Enable CPU feature (e.g., <code>avx2</code>) for code of <code>unsafe fn</code> . REF

Codegen	On	Explanation
<code>#[track_caller]</code>	F	Allows <code>fn</code> to find caller ^{STD} for better panic messages. REF
<code>#[repr(X)]</code> ¹	T	Use another representation instead of the default rust REF one:
<code>#[repr(C)]</code>	T	Use a C-compatible (f. FFI), predictable (f. transmute) layout. REF
<code>#[repr(C, u8)]</code>	enum	Give <code>enum</code> discriminant the specified type. REF
<code>#[repr(transparent)]</code>	T	Give single-element type same layout as contained field. REF
<code>#[repr(packed(1))]</code>	T	Lower alignment of struct and contained fields, mildly UB prone. REF
<code>#[repr(align(8))]</code>	T	Raise alignment of struct to given value, e.g., for SIMD types. REF

¹ Some representation modifiers can be combined, e.g., `#[repr(C, packed(1))]`.

Linking	On	Explanation
<code>#[no_mangle]</code>	*	Use item name directly as symbol name, instead of mangling. REF
<code>#[no_link]</code>	X	Don't link <code>extern crate</code> when only wanting macros. REF
<code>#[link(name="x", kind="y")]</code>	X	Native lib to link against when looking up symbol. REF
<code>#[link_name = "foo"]</code>	F	Name of symbol to search for resolving <code>extern fn</code> . REF
<code>#[link_section = ".sample"]</code>	FS	Section name of object file where item should be placed. REF
<code>#[export_name = "foo"]</code>	FS	Export a <code>fn</code> or <code>static</code> under a different name. REF
<code>#[used]</code>	S	Don't optimize away <code>static</code> variable despite it looking unused. REF

#[quality]

Attributes used by Rust tools to improve code quality:

Code Patterns	On	Explanation
<code>#[allow(X)]</code>	*	Instruct <code>rustc</code> / <code>clippy</code> to ... ignore class X of possible issues. REF
<code>#[warn(X)]</code> ¹	*	... emit a warning, mixes well with <code>clippy</code> lints. 🔥 REF
<code>#[deny(X)]</code> ¹	*	... fail compilation. REF
<code>#[forbid(X)]</code> ¹	*	... fail compilation and prevent subsequent <code>allow</code> overrides. REF
<code>#[deprecated = "msg"]</code>	*	Let your users know you made a design mistake. REF
<code>#[must_use = "msg"]</code>	FTX	Makes compiler check return value is <i>processed</i> by caller. 🔥 REF

¹ There is some debate which one is the *best* to ensure high quality crates. Actively maintained multi-dev crates probably benefit from more aggressive `deny` or `forbid` lints; less-regularly updated ones probably more from conservative use of `warn` (as future compiler or `clippy` updates may suddenly break otherwise working code with minor issues).

Tests	On	Explanation
<code>#[test]</code>	F	Marks the function as a test, run with <code>cargo test</code> . 🔥 REF
<code>#[ignore = "msg"]</code>	F	Compiles but does not execute some <code>#[test]</code> for now. REF
<code>#[should_panic]</code>	F	Test must <code>panic!()</code> to actually succeed. REF
<code>#[bench]</code>	F	Mark function in <code>bench/</code> as benchmark for <code>cargo bench</code> . 🚧 REF

Formatting	On	Explanation
<code>#[rustfmt::skip]</code>	*	Prevent cargo fmt from cleaning up item. 🔗
<code>#![rustfmt::skip::macros(x)]</code>	CM	... from cleaning up macro x. 🔗
<code>#![rustfmt::skip::attributes(x)]</code>	CM	... from cleaning up attribute x. 🔗

Documentation	On	Explanation
<code>#[doc = "Explanation"]</code>	*	Same as adding a <code>///</code> doc comment. 🔗
<code>#[doc(alias = "other")]</code>	*	Provide another name users can search for in the docs. 🔗
<code>#[doc(hidden)]</code>	*	Prevent item from showing up in docs. 🔗
<code>#![doc(html_favicon_url = "")]</code>	C	Sets the favicon for the docs. 🔗
<code>#![doc(html_logo_url = "")]</code>	C	The logo used in the docs. 🔗
<code>#![doc(html_playground_url = "")]</code>	C	Generates Run buttons and uses given service. 🔗
<code>#![doc(html_root_url = "")]</code>	C	Base URL for links to external crates. 🔗
<code>#![doc(html_no_source)]</code>	C	Prevents source from being included in docs. 🔗

`#[macros]`

Attributes related to the creation and use of macros:

Macros By Example	On	Explanation
<code>#[macro_export]</code>	!	Export <code>macro_rules!</code> as <code>pub</code> on crate level REF
<code>#[macro_use]</code>	MX	Let macros persist past modules; or import from <code>extern crate</code> . REF

Proc Macros	On	Explanation
<code>#[proc_macro]</code>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as function-like procedural macro callable as <code>m!()</code> . REF
<code>#[proc_macro_derive(Foo)]</code>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as derive macro which can <code>#[derive(Foo)]</code> . REF
<code>#[proc_macro_attribute]</code>	F	Mark <code>fn</code> as attribute macro which can understand new <code>#[x]</code> . REF

Derives	On	Explanation
<code>#[derive(X)]</code>	T	Let some proc macro provide a goodish <code>impl</code> of <code>trait X</code> . REF

`#[cfg]`

Attributes governing conditional compilation:


Config Attributes	On	Explanation
<code>#[cfg(X)]</code>	*	Include item if configuration <code>X</code> holds. REF
<code>#[cfg(all(X, Y, Z))]</code>	*	Include item if all options hold. REF
<code>#[cfg(any(X, Y, Z))]</code>	*	Include item if at least one option holds. REF
<code>#[cfg(not(X))]</code>	*	Opposite day. REF
<code>#[cfg_attr(X, foo = "msg")]</code>	*	Apply <code>#[foo = "msg"]</code> if configuration <code>X</code> holds. REF

⚠ Note, options can generally be set multiple times, i.e., the same key can show up with multiple values. One can expect `#[cfg(target_feature = "avx")]` and `#[cfg(target_feature = "avx2")]` to be true at the same time.


Known Options	On	Explanation
<code>#[cfg(target_arch = "x86_64")]</code>	*	The CPU architecture crate is compiled for. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_feature = "avx")]</code>	*	Whether a particular class of instructions is available. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_os = "macos")]</code>	*	Operating system your code will run on. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_family = "unix")]</code>	*	Family operating system belongs to. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_env = "msvc")]</code>	*	How DLLs and functions are interfaced with on OS. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_endian = "little")]</code>	*	Main reason your cool new zero-cost protocol fails. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_pointer_width = "64")]</code>	*	How many bits pointers, <code>usize</code> and CPU words have. REF
<code>#[cfg(target_vendor = "apple")]</code>	*	Manufacturer of target. REF
<code>#[cfg(debug_assertions)]</code>	*	Whether <code>debug_assert!()</code> and friends would panic. REF
<code>#[cfg(proc_macro)]</code>	*	Whether crate compiled as proc macro. REF
<code>#[cfg(test)]</code>	*	Whether compiled with cargo test. 🔥 REF
<code>#[cfg(feature = "serde")]</code>	*	When your crate was compiled with feature <code>serde</code> . 🔥 REF


build.rs

Environment variables and outputs related to the pre-build script.

Input Environment	Explanation 
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_X</code>	Environment variable set for each feature <code>x</code> activated.
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_SERDE</code>	If feature <code>serde</code> were enabled.
<code>CARGO_FEATURE_SOME_FEATURE</code>	If feature <code>some-feature</code> were enabled; dash <code>-</code> converted to <code>_</code> .
<code>CARGO_CFG_X</code>	Exposes <code>cfg</code> 's; joins mult. opts. by <code>,</code> and converts <code>-</code> to <code>_</code> .
<code>CARGO_CFG_TARGET_OS=macos</code>	If <code>target_os</code> were set to <code>macos</code> .
<code>CARGO_CFG_TARGET_FEATURE=avx, avx2</code>	If <code>target_feature</code> were set to <code>avx</code> and <code>avx2</code> .
<code>OUT_DIR</code>	Where output should be placed.
<code>TARGET</code>	Target triple being compiled for.
<code>HOST</code>	Host triple (running this build script).
<code>PROFILE</code>	Can be debug or release.

Available in `build.rs` via `env::var()?` . List not exhaustive.

Output String	Explanation 
<code>cargo:rerun-if-changed=PATH</code>	(Only) run this <code>build.rs</code> again if <code>PATH</code> changed.
<code>cargo:rerun-if-env-changed=VAR</code>	(Only) run this <code>build.rs</code> again if environment <code>VAR</code> changed.

Output String	Explanation 
<code>cargo:rustc-link-lib=[KIND=]NAME</code>	Link native library as if via <code>-l</code> option.
<code>cargo:rustc-link-search=[KIND=]PATH</code>	Search path for native library as if via <code>-L</code> option.
<code>cargo:rustc-flags=FLAGS</code>	Add special flags to compiler. [?]
<code>cargo:rustc-cfg=KEY["VALUE"]</code>	Emit given <code>cfg</code> option to be used for later compilation.
<code>cargo:rustc-env=VAR=VALUE</code>	Emit var accessible via <code>env!()</code> in crate during compilation.
<code>cargo:rustc-cdylib-link-arg=FLAG</code>	When building a <code>cdylib</code> , pass linker flag.
<code>cargo:warning=MESSAGE</code>	Emit compiler warning.

Emitted from `build.rs` via `println!()`. List not exhaustive.

For the *On* column in attributes:

- c** means on crate level (usually given as `#![my_attr]` in the top level file).
- m** means on modules.
- f** means on functions.
- s** means on static.
- t** means on types.
- x** means something special.
- !** means on macros.
- *** means on almost any item.

Working with Types

Types, Traits, Generics

Allowing users to *bring their own types* and avoid code duplication.

Types & Traits

Types

u8StringDevice

- Set of values with given semantics, layout, ...

Type	Values
u8	{ 0 _{u8} , 1 _{u8} , ..., 255 _{u8} }
char	{ 'a', 'b', ..., '🦀' }
struct S(u8, char)	{ (0 _{u8} , 'a'), ..., (255 _{u8} , '🦀') }

Sample types and sample values.

Type Equivalence and Conversions

u8&u8&mut u8[u8; 1]String

- It may be obvious but `u8`, `&u8`, `&mut u8`, are entirely different from each other
- Any `t: T` only accepts values from exactly `T`, e.g.,
 - `f(0_u8)` can't be called with `f(&0_u8)`,

- `f(&mut my_u8)` can't be called with `f(&my_u8)`,
- `f(0_u8)` can't be called with `f(0_i8)`.

Yes, `0 != 0` (in a mathematical sense) when it comes to types! In a language sense, the operation `==(0_u8, 0_u16)` just isn't defined to prevent happy little accidents.

Type	Values
<code>u8</code>	<code>{ 0_u8, 1_u8, ..., 255_u8 }</code>
<code>u16</code>	<code>{ 0_u16, 1_u16, ..., 65_535_u16 }</code>
<code>&u8</code>	<code>{ 0xffaa_u8, 0xffbb_u8, ... }</code>
<code>&mut u8</code>	<code>{ 0xffaa_mut u8, 0xffbb_mut u8, ... }</code>

How values differ between types.

- However, Rust might sometimes help to **convert between types**¹
 - **casts** manually convert values of types, `0_i8 as u8`
 - **coercions**[†] automatically convert types if safe², `let x: &u8 = &mut 0_u8;`

¹ Casts and coercions convert values from one set (e.g., `u8`) to another (e.g., `u16`), possibly adding CPU instructions to do so; and in such differ from **subtyping**, which would imply type and subtype are part of the same set (e.g., `u8` being subtype of `u16` and `0_u8` being the same as `0_u16`) where such a conversion would be purely a compile time check. Rust does not use subtyping for regular types (and `0_u8` *does* differ from `0_u16`) but sort-of for lifetimes. [♂]

² Safety here is not just physical concept (e.g., `&u8` can't be coerced to `&u128`), but also whether 'history has shown that such a conversion would lead to programming errors'.

Implementations — `impl S { }`

<code>u8</code>	<code>String</code>	<code>Port</code>
<code>impl { ... }</code>	<code>impl { ... }</code>	<code>impl { ... }</code>

```
impl Port {
    fn f() { ... }
}
```

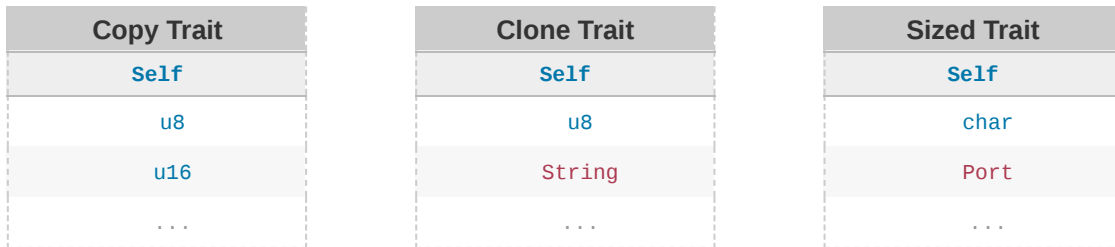
- Types usually come with implementation, e.g., `impl Port {}`, behavior *related* to type:
 - **associated functions** `Port::new(80)`
 - **methods** `port.close()`

What's considered *related* is more philosophical than technical, nothing (except good taste) would prevent a `u8::play_sound()` from happening.

Traits — `trait T { }`

Copy	Clone	Sized	ShowHex
------	-------	-------	---------

- **Traits ...**
 - are way to "abstract" behavior,
 - trait author declares semantically *this trait means X*,
 - other can implement ("subscribe to") that behavior for their type.
- Think about trait as "membership list" for types:



Traits as membership tables, `Self` refers to the type included.

- **Whoever is part of that membership list will adhere to behavior of list.**
- Traits can also include associated methods, functions, ...

```
trait ShowHex {
    // Must be implemented according to documentation.
    fn as_hex() -> String;

    // Provided by trait author.
    fn print_hex() {}
}
```

Copy

```
trait Copy { }
```

- Traits without methods often called **marker traits**.
- `Copy` is example marker trait, meaning *memory may be copied bitwise*.

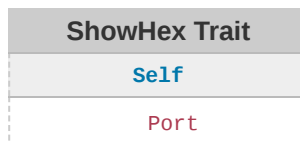
Sized

- Some traits entirely outside explicit control
- `Sized` provided by compiler for types with *known size*; either this is, or isn't

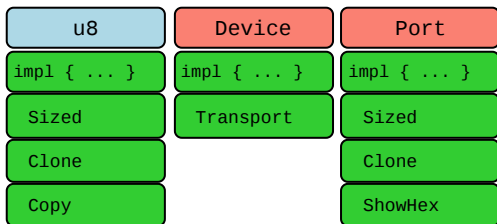
Implementing Traits for Types — `impl T for S { }`

```
impl ShowHex for Port { ... }
```

- Traits are implemented for types 'at some point'.
- Implementation `impl A for B` add type `B` to the trait membership list:



- Visually, you can think of the type getting a "badge" for its membership:



Traits vs. Interfaces

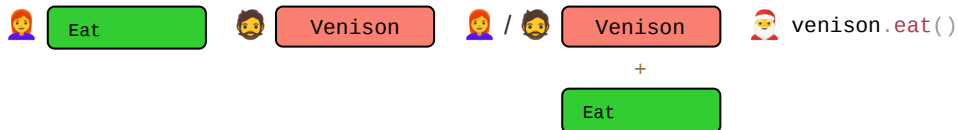


Interfaces

- In **Java**, Alice creates interface `Eat`.
- When Bob authors `Venison`, he must decide if `Venison` implements `Eat` or not.
- In other words, all membership must be exhaustively declared during type definition.
- When using `Venison`, Santa can make use of behavior provided by `Eat`:

```
// Santa imports `Venison` to create it, can `eat()` if he wants.
import food.Venison;

new Venison("rudolph").eat();
```



Traits

- In **Rust**, Alice creates trait `Eat`.
- Bob creates type `Venison` and decides not to implement `Eat` (he might not even know about `Eat`).
- Someone* later decides adding `Eat` to `Venison` would be a really good idea.
- When using `Venison` Santa must import `Eat` separately:

```
// Santa needs to import `Venison` to create it, and import `Eat` for trait method.
use food::Venison;
use tasks::Eat;

// Ho ho ho
Venison::new("rudolph").eat();
```

* To prevent two persons from implementing `Eat` differently Rust limits that choice to either Alice or Bob; that is, an `impl Eat for Venison` may only happen in the crate of `Venison` or in the crate of `Eat`. For details see coherence. [?]

Type Constructors — `Vec<>`

`Vec<u8>``Vec<char>`

- `Vec<u8>` is type "vector of bytes"; `Vec<char>` is type "vector of chars", but what is `Vec<>`?

Construct	Values
<code>Vec<u8></code>	{ [], [1], [1, 2, 3], ... }
<code>Vec<char></code>	{ [], ['a'], ['x', 'y', 'z'], ... }
<code>Vec<></code>	-

Types vs type constructors.

`Vec<>`

- `Vec<>` is no type, does not occupy memory, can't even be translated to code.
- `Vec<>` is **type constructor**, a "template" or "recipe to create types"
 - allows 3rd party to construct concrete type via parameter,
 - only then would this `Vec<UserType>` become real type itself.

Generic Parameters — `<T>`

`Vec<T>``[T; 128]``&T``&mut T``S<T>`

- Parameter for `Vec<>` often named `T` therefore `Vec<T>`.
- `T` "variable name for type" for user to plug in something specific, `Vec<f32>`, `S<u8>`, ...

Type Constructor	Produces Family
<code>struct Vec<T> {}</code>	<code>Vec<u8></code> , <code>Vec<f32></code> , <code>Vec<Vec<u8>></code> , ...
<code>[T; 128]</code>	<code>[u8; 128]</code> , <code>[char; 128]</code> , <code>[Port; 128]</code> ...
<code>&T</code>	<code>&u8</code> , <code>&u16</code> , <code>&str</code> , ...

Types vs type constructors.

```
// S<> is type constructor with parameter T; user can supply any concrete type for T.
struct S<T> {
    x: T
}

// Within 'concrete' code an existing type must be given for T.
fn f() {
    let x: S<f32> = S::new(0_f32);
}
```

Const Generics — `[T; N]` and `S<const N: usize>`

`[T; n]``S<const N>`

- Some type constructors not only accept specific type, but also **specific constant**.

- `[T; n]` constructs array type holding `T` type `n` times.
- For custom types declared as `MyArray<T, const N: usize>`.

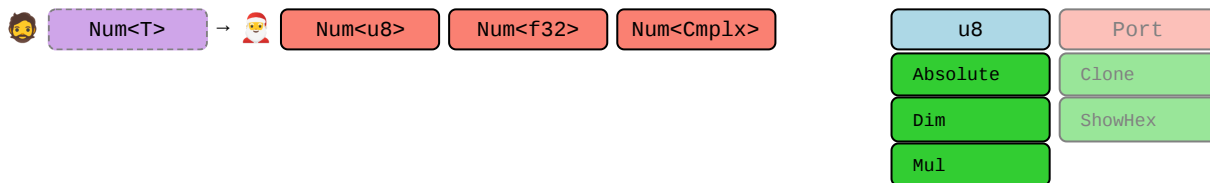
Type Constructor	Produces Family
<code>[u8; N]</code>	<code>[u8; 0]</code> , <code>[u8; 1]</code> , <code>[u8; 2]</code> , ...
<code>struct S<const N: usize> {}</code>	<code>S<1></code> , <code>S<6></code> , <code>S<123></code> , ...

Type constructors based on constant.

```
let x: [u8; 4]; // "array of 4 bytes"
let y: [f32; 16]; // "array of 16 floats"

// `MyArray` is type constructor requiring concrete type `T` and
// concrete usize `N` to construct specific type.
struct MyArray<T, const N: usize> {
    data: [T; N],
}
```

Bounds (Simple) — `where T: X`



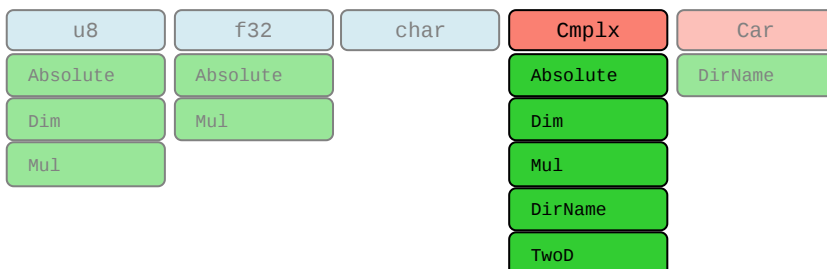
- If `T` can be any type, how can we *reason* about (write code) for such a `Num<T>`?
- Parameter **bounds**:
 - limit what types (**trait bound**) or values (**const bound** ?) allowed,
 - we now can make use of these limits!
- Trait bounds act as "membership check":

```
// Type can only be constructed for some `T` if that
// T is part of `Absolute` membership list.
struct Num<T> where T: Absolute {
    ...
}
```

Absolute Trait
Self
<code>u8</code>
<code>u16</code>
...

We add bounds to the struct here. In practice it's nicer add bounds to the respective impl blocks instead, see later this section.

Bounds (Compound) — `where T: X + Y`



```
struct S<T>
where
    T: Absolute + Dim + Mul + DirName + TwoD
{ ... }
```

- Long trait bounds can look intimidating.
- In practice, each + X addition to a bound merely cuts down space of eligible types.

Implementing Families — `impl<>`

When we write:

```
impl<T> S<T> where T: Absolute + Dim + Mul {
    fn f(&self, x: T) { ... };
}
```

It can be read as:

- here is an implementation recipe for any type `T` (the `impl <T>` part),
- where that type must be member of the `Absolute + Dim + Mul` traits,
- you may add an implementation block to `S<T>`,
- containing the methods ...

You can think of such `impl<T> ... {}` code as **abstractly implementing a family of behaviors**. Most notably, they allow 3rd parties to transparently materialize implementations similarly to how type constructors materialize types:

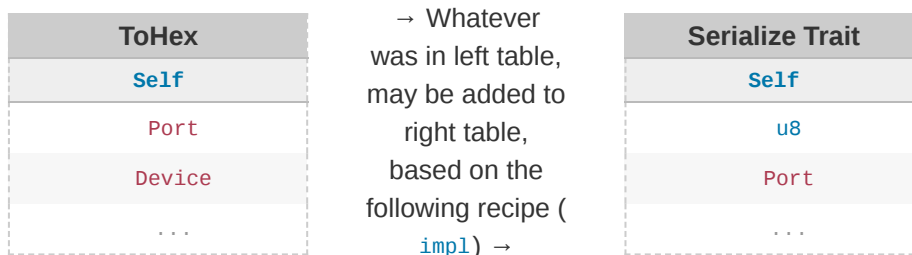
```
// If compiler encounters this, it will
// - check `0` and `x` fulfill the membership requirements of `T`
// - create two new version of `f`, one for `char`, another one for `u32`.
// - based on "family implementation" provided
s.f(0_u32);
s.f('x');
```

Blanket Implementations — `impl<T> X for T { ... }`

Can also write "family implementations" so they apply trait to many types:

```
// Also implements Serialize for any type if that type already implements ToHex
impl<T> Serialize for T where T: ToHex { ... }
```

These are called **blanket implementations**.

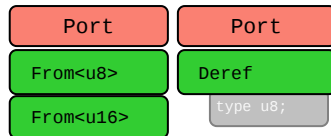


They can be neat way to give foreign types functionality in a modular way if they just implement another interface.

Advanced Concepts

Trait Parameters — `Trait<In> { type Out; }`

Notice how some traits can be "attached" multiple times, but others just once?



Why is that?

- Traits themselves can be generic over two **kinds of parameters**:
 - `trait From<I> {}`
 - `trait Deref { type O; }`
- Remember we said traits are "membership lists" for types and called the list `Self`?
- Turns out, parameters `I` (for **input**) and `O` (for **output**) are just more *columns* to that trait's list:

```
impl From<u8> for u16 {}
impl From<u16> for u32 {}
impl Deref for Port { type O = u8; }
impl Deref for String { type O = str; }
```

From		Deref	
Self	I	Self	O
u16	u8	Port	u8
u32	u16	String	str
...		...	

Input and output parameters.

Now here's the twist,

- **any output `O` parameters must be uniquely determined by input parameters `I`**,
- (in the same way as a relation `x y` would represent a function),
- `Self` counts as an input.

A more complex example:

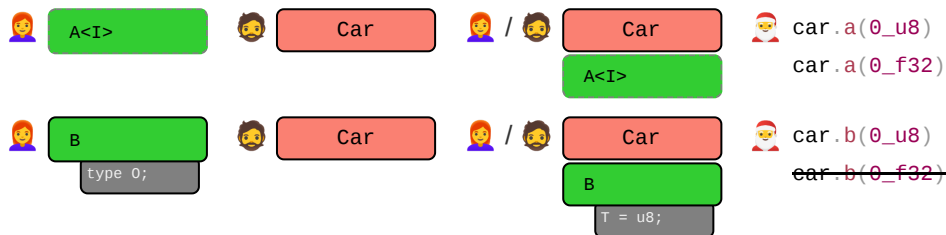
```
trait Complex<I1, I2> {
    type O1;
    type O2;
}
```

- this creates a relation of types named `Complex`,
- with 3 inputs (`Self` is always one) and 2 outputs, and it holds $(\text{Self}, I1, I2) \Rightarrow (O1, O2)$

Complex				
Self [I]	I1	I2	O1	O2
Player	u8	char	f32	f32
EvilMonster	u16	str	u8	u8
EvilMonster	u16	String	u8	u8
NiceMonster	u16	String	u8	u8
NiceMonster	u16	String	u8	u16

Various trait implementations. The last one is not valid as $(\text{NiceMonster}, u16, \text{String})$ has already uniquely determined the outputs.

Trait Authoring Considerations (Abstract)



- Parameter choice (input vs. output) also determines who may be allowed to add members:
 - `I` parameters allow "families of implementations" be forwarded to user (Santa),
 - `O` parameters must be determined by trait implementor (Alice or Bob).

```

trait A<I> { }
trait B { type O; }

// Implementor adds (X, u32) to A.
impl A<u32> for X { }

// Implementor adds family impl. (X, ...) to A, user can materialize.
impl<T> A<T> for Y { }

// Implementor must decide specific entry (X, O) added to B.
impl B for X { type O = u32; }

```

A	
Self	I
X	u32
Y	...

Santa may add more members by providing his own type for `T`.

B	
Self	O
Player	String
X	u32

For given set of inputs (here `Self`), implementor must pre-select `O`.

Trait Authoring Considerations (Example)



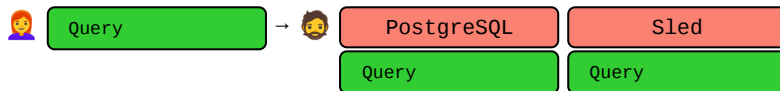
Choice of parameters goes along with purpose trait has to fill.

No Additional Parameters

```
trait Query {
    fn search(&self, needle: &str);
}

impl Query for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl Query for Sled { ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...");
```



Trait author assumes:

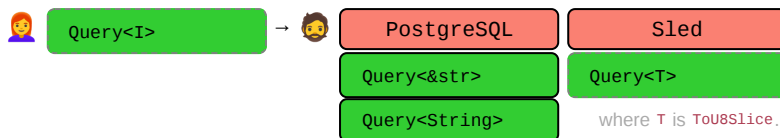
- neither implementor nor user need to customize API.

Input Parameters

```
trait Query<I> {
    fn search(&self, needle: I);
}

impl Query<&str> for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl Query<String> for PostgreSQL { ... }
impl<T> Query<T> for Sled where T: ToU8Slice { ... }

postgres.search("SELECT ...");
postgres.search(input.to_string());
sled.search(file);
```

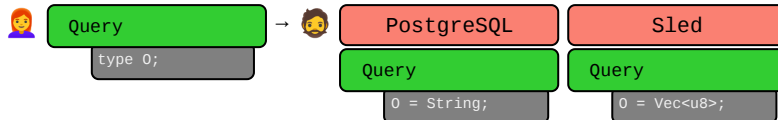


Trait author assumes:

- implementor would customize API in multiple ways for same `Self` type,
- users may want ability to decide for which `I`-types behavior should be possible.

Output Parameters

```
trait Query {  
    type O;  
    fn search(&self, needle: Self::O);  
}  
  
impl Query for PostgreSQL { type O = String; ...}  
impl Query for Sled { type O = Vec<u8>; ... }  
  
postgres.search("SELECT ...".to_string());  
sled.search(vec![0, 1, 2, 4]);
```



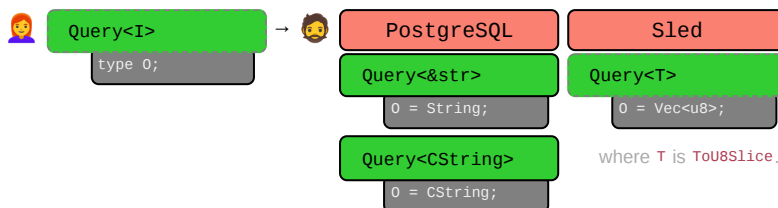
Trait author assumes:

- implementor would customize API for `Self` type (but in only one way),
- users do not need, or should not have, ability to influence customization for specific `Self`.

As you can see here, the term **input** or **output** does **not** (necessarily) have anything to do with whether `I` or `O` are inputs or outputs to an actual function!

Multiple In- and Output Parameters

```
trait Query<I> {  
    type O;  
    fn search(&self, needle: I) -> Self::O;  
}  
  
impl Query<&str> for PostgreSQL { type O = String; ... }  
impl Query<CString> for PostgreSQL { type O = CString; ... }  
impl<T> Query<T> for Sled where T: ToU8Slice { type O = Vec<u8>; ... }  
  
postgres.search("SELECT ...").to_uppercase();  
sled.search(&[1, 2, 3, 4]).pop();
```



Like examples above, in particular trait author assumes:

- users may want ability to decide for which `I`-types ability should be possible,

- for given inputs, implementor should determine resulting output type.

Dynamic / Zero Sized Types



- A type `T` is **Sized** ^{STD} if at compile time it is known how many bytes it occupies, `u8` and `&[u8]` are, `[u8]` isn't.
- Being **Sized** means `impl Sized for T {}` holds. Happens automatically and cannot be user impl'ed.
- Types not **Sized** are called **dynamically sized types** ^{BK NOM REF} (DSTs), sometimes **unsized**.
- Types without data are called **zero sized types** ^{NOM} (ZSTs), do not occupy space.

Example	Explanation
<code>struct A { x: u8 }</code>	Type <code>A</code> is sized, i.e., <code>impl Sized for A</code> holds, this is a 'regular' type.
<code>struct B { x: [u8] }</code>	Since <code>[u8]</code> is a DST, <code>B</code> in turn becomes DST, i.e., does not <code>impl Sized</code> .
<code>struct C<T> { x: T }</code>	Type params have implicit <code>T: Sized</code> bound, e.g., <code>C<A></code> is valid, <code>C</code> is not.
<code>struct D<T: ?Sized> { x: T }</code>	Using <code>?Sized</code> ^{REF} allows opt-out of that bound, i.e., <code>D</code> is also valid.
<code>struct E;</code>	Type <code>E</code> is zero-sized (and also sized) and will not consume memory.
<code>trait F { fn f(&self); }</code>	Traits do not have an implicit <code>Sized</code> bound, i.e., <code>impl F for B {}</code> is valid.
<code>trait F: Sized {}</code>	Traits can however opt into <code>Sized</code> via supertraits. [†]
<code>trait G { fn g(self); }</code>	For <code>Self</code> -like params DST <code>impl</code> may still fail as params can't go on stack.

?Sized



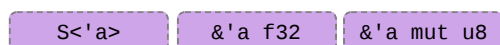
```
struct S<T> { ... }
```

- `T` can be any concrete type.
- However, there exists invisible default bound `T: Sized`, so `S<str>` is not possible out of box.
- Instead we have to add `T: ?Sized` to opt-out of that bound:



```
struct S<T> where T: ?Sized { ... }
```

Generics and Lifetimes — `<'a>`



- Lifetimes act* like type parameters:
 - user must provide specific `'a` to instantiate type (compiler will help within methods),
 - as `Vec<f32>` and `Vec<u8>` are different types, so are `S<'p>` and `S<'q>`,
 - meaning you can't just assign value of type `S<'a>` to variable expecting `S<'b>` (exception: "subtype" relationship for lifetimes, e.g. `'a` outliving `'b`).

S<'a>

→ S<'auto>

S<'static>

- 'static is only nameable instance of the *typespace* lifetimes.

```
// `a is free parameter here (user can pass any specific lifetime)
struct S<'a> {
    x: &'a u32
}
```

```
// In non-generic code, 'static is the only nameable lifetime we can explicitly put in here.
let a: S<'static>;
```

```
// Alternatively, in non-generic code we can (often must) omit 'a and have Rust determine
// the right value for 'a automatically.
let b: S;
```

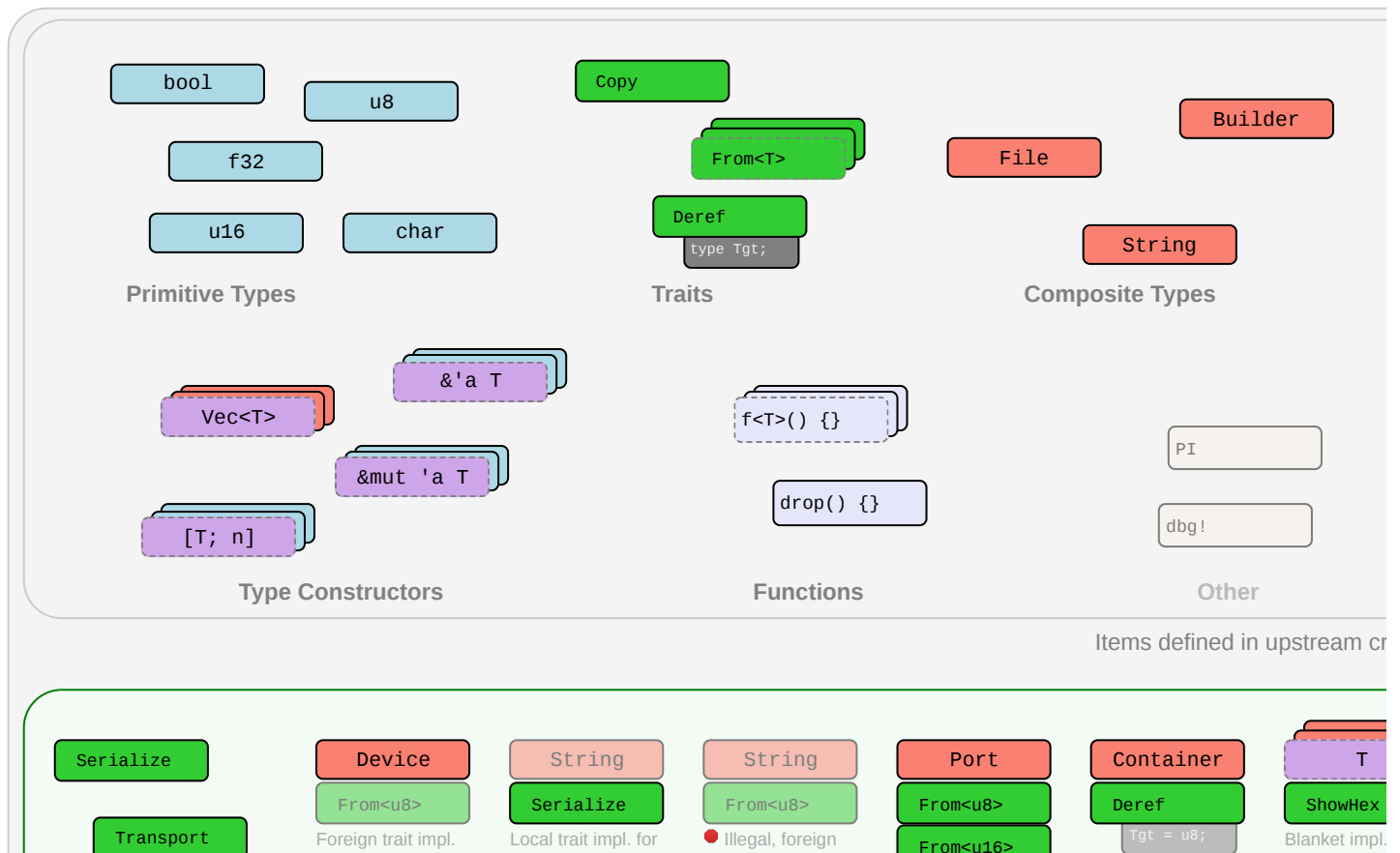
* There are subtle differences, for example you can create an explicit instance `0` of a type `u32`, but with the exception of `'static` you can't really create a lifetime, e.g., "lines 80 - 100", the compiler will do that for you. [↗](#)

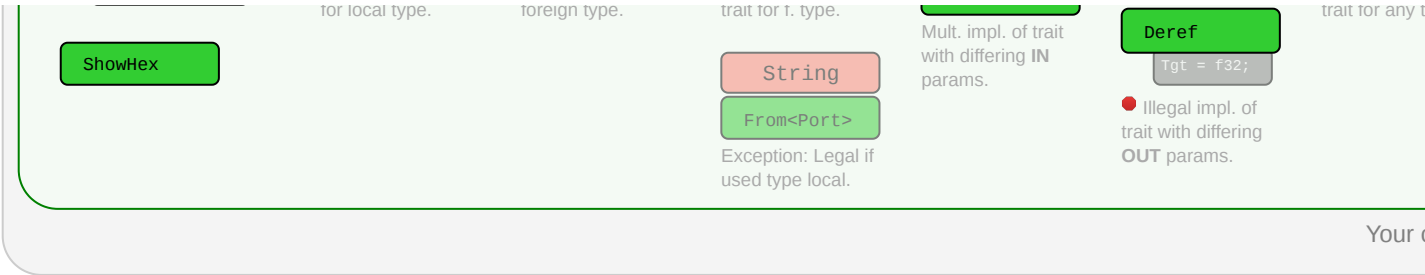
Note to self and TODO: that analogy seems somewhat flawed, as if `S<'a>` is to `S<'static>` like `S<T>` is to `S<u32>`, then `'static` would be a *type*; but then what's the value of that type?

Examples expand by clicking.

Type Zoo

A visual overview of types and traits in crates.





A walk through the jungle of types, traits, and implementations that (might possibly) exist in your application.

Type Conversions

How to get **B** when you have **A**?

Intro

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {  
    // How can you obtain B from A?  
}
```

Method	Explanation
Identity	Trivial case, B is exactly A .
Computation	Create and manipulate instance of B by writing code transforming data.
Casts	On-demand conversion between types where caution is advised.
Coercions	Automatic conversion within 'weakening ruleset'. ¹
Subtyping	Automatic conversion within 'same-layout-different-lifetimes ruleset'. ¹

¹ While both convert **A** to **B**, **coercions** generally link to an *unrelated* **B** (a type "one could reasonably expect to have different methods"), while **subtyping** links to a **B** differing only in lifetimes.

Computation (Traits)

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {  
    x.into()  
}
```

Bread and butter way to get **B** from **A**. Some traits provide canonical, user-computable type relations:

Trait	Example	Trait implies ...
<code>impl From<A> for B {}</code>	<code>a.into()</code>	<i>Obvious</i> , always-valid relation.
<code>impl TryFrom<A> for B {}</code>	<code>a.try_into()?</code>	<i>Obvious</i> , sometimes-valid relation.
<code>impl Deref for A {}</code>	<code>*a</code>	A is smart pointer carrying B ; also enables coercions.
<code>impl AsRef for A {}</code>	<code>a.as_ref()</code>	A can be <i>viewed</i> as B .

Trait	Example	Trait implies ...
<code>impl AsMut for A {}</code>	<code>a.as_mut()</code>	A can be mutably viewed as B.
<code>impl Borrow for A {}</code>	<code>a.borrow()</code>	A has borrowed <i>analog</i> B (behaving same under <code>Eq</code> , ...).
<code>impl ToOwned for A { ... }</code>	<code>a.to_owned()</code>	A has owned analog B.

Casts


```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x as B
}
```

Convert types **with keyword `as`** if conversion *relatively obvious* but **might cause issues**. ^{NOM}

A	B	Example	Explanation
<code>Ptr</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>device_ptr as *const u8</code>	If <code>*A</code> , <code>*B</code> are <code>Sized</code> .
<code>Ptr</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>device_ptr as usize</code>	
<code>Integer</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>my_usize as *const Device</code>	
<code>Number</code>	<code>Number</code>	<code>my_u8 as u16</code>	Often surprising behavior. [†]
<code>enum</code> w/o fields	<code>Integer</code>	<code>E::A as u8</code>	
<code>bool</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>true as u8</code>	
<code>char</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>'A' as u8</code>	
<code>&[T; N]</code>	<code>*const T</code>	<code>my_ref as *const u8</code>	
<code>fn(...)</code>	<code>Ptr</code>	<code>f as *const u8</code>	If <code>Ptr</code> is <code>Sized</code> .
<code>fn(...)</code>	<code>Integer</code>	<code>f as usize</code>	

Where `Ptr`, `Integer`, `Number` are just used for brevity and actually mean:

- `Ptr` any `*const T` or `*mut T`;
- `Integer` any countable `u8 ... i128`;
- `Number` any `Integer`, `f32`, `f64`.

Opinion  — Casts, esp. `Number - Number`, can easily go wrong. If you are concerned with correctness, consider more explicit methods instead.

Coercions

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically **weaken** type A to B; types can be *substantially*¹ different. ^{NOM}

A	B	Explanation
<code>&mut T</code>	<code>&T</code>	Pointer weakening.
<code>&mut T</code>	<code>*mut T</code>	-
<code>&T</code>	<code>*const T</code>	-
<code>*mut T</code>	<code>*const T</code>	-
<code>&T</code>	<code>&U</code>	Deref, if <code>impl Deref<Target=U> for T</code> .
<code>T</code>	<code>U</code>	Unsizing, if <code>impl CoerceUnsized<U> for T</code> . ² ⚡
<code>T</code>	<code>V</code>	Transitivity, if <code>T</code> coerces to <code>U</code> and <code>U</code> to <code>V</code> .
<code> x x + x</code>	<code>fn(u8) -> u8</code>	Non-capturing closure, to equivalent <code>fn</code> pointer.

¹ *Substantially* meaning one can regularly expect a coercion result `B` to be *an entirely different type* (i.e., have entirely different methods) than the original type `A`.

² Does not quite work in example above as `unsized` can't be on stack; imagine `f(x: &A) -> &B` instead. Unsizing works by default for:

- `[T; n]` to `[T]`
- `T` to `dyn Trait` if `impl Trait for T {}`.
- `Foo<..., T, ...>` to `Foo<..., U, ...>` under arcane ⚡ circumstances.

Subtyping

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically converts `A` to `B` for types **only differing in lifetimes** ^{NOM} - subtyping examples:

A(subtype)	B(supertype)	Explanation
<code>&'static u8</code>	<code>&'a u8</code>	Valid, <i>forever</i> -pointer is also <i>transient</i> -pointer.
<code>&'a u8</code>	<code>&'static u8</code>	❌ Invalid, transient should not be forever.
<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	Valid, same thing. But now things get interesting. Read on.
<code>&'a &'static u8</code>	<code>&'a &'b u8</code>	Valid, <code>&'static u8</code> is also <code>&'b u8</code> ; covariant inside <code>&</code> .
<code>&'a mut &'static u8</code>	<code>&'a mut &'b u8</code>	❌ Invalid and surprising; invariant inside <code>&mut</code> .
<code>Box<&'a static></code>	<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	Valid, box with forever is also box with transient; covariant.
<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	<code>Box<&'static u8></code>	❌ Invalid, box with transient may not be with forever.
<code>Box<&'a mut u8></code>	<code>Box<&'a u8></code>	❌ ⚡ Invalid, see table below, <code>&mut u8</code> never was a <code>&u8</code> .
<code>Cell<&'a static></code>	<code>Cell<&'a u8></code>	❌ Invalid, cells are never something else; invariant.
<code>fn(&'static u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'u8 u8)</code>	❌ If <code>fn</code> needs forever it may choke on transients; contravar.
<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'static u8)</code>	But sth. that eats transients can be(!) sth. that eats forever.
<code>for<'r> fn(&'r u8)</code>	<code>fn(&'a u8)</code>	Higher-ranked type <code>for<'r> fn(&'r u8)</code> is also <code>fn(&'a u8)</code> .

In contrast, these are **not** examples of subtyping:

A	B	Explanation
<code>u16</code>	<code>u8</code>	● Obviously invalid ; <code>u16</code> should never automatically be <code>u8</code> .
<code>u8</code>	<code>u16</code>	● Invalid by design ; types w. different data still never subtype even if they <i>could</i> .
<code>&'a mut u8</code>	<code>&'a u8</code>	● Trojan horse, not subtyping; but coercion (still works, just not subtyping).

Variance

```
fn f(x: A) -> B {
    x
}
```

Automatically converts `A` to `B` for types **only differing in lifetimes**^{NOM} - subtyping **variance** rules:

- A longer lifetime `'a` that outlives a shorter `'b` is a subtype of `'b`.
- Implies `'static` is subtype of all other lifetimes `'a`.
- Whether types with parameters (e.g., `&'a T`) are subtypes of each other the following variance table is used:

Construct ¹	'a	T	U
<code>&'a T</code>	covariant	covariant	
<code>&'a mut T</code>	covariant	invariant	
<code>Box<T></code>		covariant	
<code>Cell<T></code>		invariant	
<code>fn(T) -> U</code>		contravariant	covariant
<code>*const T</code>		covariant	
<code>*mut T</code>		invariant	

Covariant means if `A` is subtype of `B`, then `T[A]` is subtype of `T[B]`.

Contravariant means if `A` is subtype of `B`, then `T[B]` is subtype of `T[A]`.

Invariant means even if `A` is subtype of `B`, neither `T[A]` nor `T[B]` will be subtype of the other.

¹ Compounds like `struct S<T> {}` obtain variance through their used fields, usually becoming invariant if multiple variances are mixed.

💡 **In other words**, 'regular' types are never subtypes of each other (e.g., `u8` is not subtype of `u16`), and a `Box<u32>` would never be sub- or supertype of anything. However, generally a `Box<A>`, can be subtype of `Box` (via covariance) if `A` is a subtype of `B`, which can only happen if `A` and `B` are 'sort of the same type that only differed in lifetimes', e.g., `A` being `&'static u32` and `B` being `&'a u32`.

Idiomatic Rust

If you are used to programming Java or C, consider these.

Idiom	Code
Think in Expressions	<pre>x = if x { a } else { b }; x = loop { break 5 }; fn f() -> u32 { 0 }</pre>
Think in Iterators	<pre>(1..10).map(f).collect() names.iter().filter(x x.starts_with("A"))</pre>
Handle Absence with ?	<pre>x = try_something()?; get_option()?.run()? </pre>
Use Strong Types	<pre>enum E { Invalid, Valid { ... } } over ERROR_INVALID = -1 enum E { Visible, Hidden } over visible: bool struct Charge(f32) over f32</pre>
Provide Builders	<pre>Car::new("Model T").hp(20).build();</pre>
Split Implementations	<p>Generic types <code>S<T></code> can have a separate <code>impl</code> per <code>T</code>.</p> <p>Rust doesn't have OO, but with separate <code>impl</code> you can get specialization.</p>
Unsafe	<p>Avoid <code>unsafe {}</code>, often safer, faster solution without it. Exception: FFI.</p>
Implement Traits	<pre>#[derive(Debug, Copy, ...)]</pre> and custom <code>impl</code> where needed.
Tooling	<p>With <code>clippy</code> you can improve your code quality.</p> <p>Formatting with <code>rustfmt</code> helps others to read your code.</p> <p>Add <code>unit tests</code> ^{BK} (<code>#[test]</code>) to ensure your code works.</p> <p>Add <code>doc tests</code> ^{BK} (<code>`` my_api::f() ``</code>) to ensure docs match code.</p>
Documentation	<p>Annotate your APIs with doc comments that can show up on docs.rs.</p> <p>Don't forget to include a summary sentence and the Examples heading.</p> <p>If applicable: Panics, Errors, Safety, Abort and Undefined Behavior.</p>

🔥 We **highly** recommend you also follow the [API Guidelines \(Checklist\)](#) for any shared project! 🔥

Async-Await 101

If you are familiar with `async / await` in C# or TypeScript, here are some things to keep in mind:

Construct	Explanation
<code>async</code>	Anything declared <code>async</code> always returns an <code>impl Future<Output=_, STD</code>
<code>async fn f() {}</code>	Function <code>f</code> returns an <code>impl Future<Output=()></code> .
<code>async fn f() -> S {}</code>	Function <code>f</code> returns an <code>impl Future<Output=S></code> .
<code>async { x }</code>	Transforms <code>{ x }</code> into an <code>impl Future<Output=X></code> .
<code>let sm = f();</code>	Calling <code>f()</code> that is <code>async</code> will not execute <code>f</code> , but produce state machine <code>sm</code> . ^{1 2}
<code>sm = async { g() };</code>	Likewise, does not execute the <code>{ g() }</code> block; produces state machine.

Construct	Explanation
<code>runtime.block_on(sm);</code>	Outside an <code>async {}</code> , schedules <code>sm</code> to actually run. Would execute <code>g()</code> . ^{3 4}
<code>sm.await</code>	Inside an <code>async {}</code> , run <code>sm</code> until complete. Yield to runtime if <code>sm</code> not ready.

¹ Technically `async` transforms following code into anonymous, compiler-generated state machine type; `f()` instantiates that machine.

² The state machine always `impl Future`, possibly `Send` & co, depending on types used inside `async`.

³ State machine driven by worker thread invoking `Future::poll()` via runtime directly, or parent `.await` indirectly.

⁴ Rust doesn't come with runtime, need external crate instead, e.g., `async-std` or `tokio 0.2+`. Also, more helpers in `futures crate`.

Execution Flow

At each `x.await`, state machine passes control to subordinate state machine `x`. At some point a low-level state machine invoked via `.await` might not be ready. In that the case worker thread returns all the way up to runtime so it can drive another Future. Some time later the runtime:

- **might** resume execution. It usually does, unless `sm` / `Future` dropped.
- **might** resume with the previous worker **or another** worker thread (depends on runtime).

Simplified diagram for code written inside an `async` block :

```

consecutive_code();           consecutive_code();           consecutive_code();
START -----> x.await -----> y.await -----> READY
// ^                               ^   ^
// Invoked via runtime             |   |
// or an external .await           |   |   Future<Output=X> ready -^
//                               |   |
//                               |   |   This might resume on another thread (next best available),
//                               |   |   or NOT AT ALL if Future was dropped.
//                               |   |
//                               |   |   Execute `x`. If ready: just continue execution; if not, return
//                               |   |   this thread to runtime.
//                               |   |

```

Caveats

With the execution flow in mind, some considerations when writing code inside an `async` construct:

Constructs ¹	Explanation
<code>sleep_or_block();</code>	Definitely bad 🚫, never halt current thread, clogs executor.
<code>set_TL(a); x.await; TL();</code>	Definitely bad 🚫, <code>await</code> may return from other thread, <code>thread local</code> invalid.
<code>s.no(); x.await; s.go();</code>	Maybe bad 🚫, <code>await</code> will not return if <code>Future</code> dropped while waiting. ²
<code>Rc::new(); x.await; rc();</code>	Non- <code>Send</code> types prevent <code>impl Future</code> from being <code>Send</code> ; less compatible.

¹ Here we assume `s` is any non-local that could temporarily be put into an invalid state; `TL` is any thread local storage, and that the `async {}` containing the code is written without assuming executor specifics.

² Since `Drop` is run in any case when `Future` is dropped, consider using drop guard that cleans up / fixes application state if it has to be left in bad condition across `.await` points.

Closures in APIs

There is a subtrait relationship `Fn : FnMut : FnOnce`. That means a closure that implements `Fn` ^{STD} also implements `FnMut` and `FnOnce`. Likewise a closure that implements `FnMut` ^{STD} also implements `FnOnce`, ^{STD}

From a call site perspective that means:

Signature	Function g can call ...	Function g accepts ...
<code>g<F: FnOnce()>(f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> once.	<code>Fn</code> , <code>FnMut</code> , <code>FnOnce</code>
<code>g<F: FnMut()>(mut f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> multiple times.	<code>Fn</code> , <code>FnMut</code>
<code>g<F: Fn()>(f: F)</code>	... <code>f()</code> multiple times.	<code>Fn</code>

Notice how **asking** for a `Fn` closure as a function is most restrictive for the caller; but **having** a `Fn` closure as a caller is most compatible with any function.

From the perspective of someone defining a closure:

Closure	Implements*	Comment
<code> { moved_s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code>	Caller must give up ownership of <code>moved_s</code> .
<code> { &mut s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code> , <code>FnMut</code>	Allows <code>g()</code> to change caller's local state <code>s</code> .
<code> { &s; }</code>	<code>FnOnce</code> , <code>FnMut</code> , <code>Fn</code>	May not mutate state; but can share and reuse <code>s</code> .

* Rust **prefers capturing** by reference (resulting in the most "compatible" `Fn` closures from a caller perspective), but can be forced to capture its environment by copy or move via the `move || {}` syntax.

That gives the following advantages and disadvantages:

Requiring	Advantage	Disadvantage
<code>F: FnOnce</code>	Easy to satisfy as caller.	Single use only, <code>g()</code> may call <code>f()</code> just once.
<code>F: FnMut</code>	Allows <code>g()</code> to change caller state.	Caller may not reuse captures during <code>g()</code> .
<code>F: Fn</code>	Many can exist at same time.	Hardest to produce for caller.

Unsafe, Unsound, Undefined

Unsafe leads to unsound. Unsound leads to undefined. Undefined leads to the dark side of the force.

Unsafe Code

Unsafe Code

- Code marked `unsafe` has special permissions, e.g., to deref raw pointers, or invoke other `unsafe` functions.
- Along come special **promises the author *must* uphold to the compiler**, and the compiler *will* trust you.
- By itself `unsafe` code is not bad, but dangerous, and needed for FFI or exotic data structures.

```
// `x` must always point to race-free, valid, aligned, initialized u8 memory.  
unsafe fn unsafe_f(x: *mut u8) {  
    my_native_lib(x);  
}
```

Undefined Behavior

Undefined Behavior (UB)

- As mentioned, `unsafe` code implies [special promises](#) to the compiler (it wouldn't need be `unsafe` otherwise).
- Failure to uphold any promise makes compiler produce fallacious code, execution of which leads to UB.
- After triggering undefined behavior *anything* can happen. Insidiously, the effects may be 1) subtle, 2) manifest far away from the site of violation or 3) be visible only under certain conditions.
- A seemingly *working* program (incl. any number of unit tests) is no proof UB code might not fail on a whim.
- Code with UB is objectively dangerous, invalid and should never exist.

```
if should_be_true() {  
    let r: &u8 = unsafe { &*ptr::null() };    // Once this runs, ENTIRE app is undefined. Even if  
} else {                                     // line seemingly didn't do anything, app might  
now run  
    println!("the spanish inquisition");      // both paths, corrupt database, or anything else.  
}
```

Unsound Code

Unsound Code

- Any *safe* Rust that could (even only theoretically) produce UB for any user input is always **unsound**.
- As is `unsafe` code that may invoke UB on its own accord by violating above-mentioned promises.
- Unsound code is a stability and security risk, and violates basic assumption many Rust users have.

```
fn unsound_ref<T>(x: &T) -> &u128 {          // Signature looks safe to users. Happens to be  
    unsafe { mem::transmute(x) }           // ok if invoked with an &u128, UB for practically  
}                                           // everything else.
```

Responsible use of Unsafe

- Do not use `unsafe` unless you absolutely have to.
- Follow the [Nomicon](#), [Unsafe Guidelines](#), **always** uphold **all** safety invariants, and **never** invoke UB.
- Minimize the use of `unsafe` and encapsulate it in small, sound modules that are easy to review.
- Never create unsound abstractions; if you can't encapsulate `unsafe` properly, don't do it.
- Each `unsafe` unit should be accompanied by plain-text reasoning outlining its safety.

API Stability

When updating an API, these changes can break client code.^{[RFC](#)} Major changes (●) are **definitely breaking**, while minor changes (●) **might be breaking**:

Crates

- Making a crate that previously compiled for *stable* require *nightly*.
- Altering use of Cargo features (e.g., adding or removing features).

Modules

- Renaming / moving / removing any public items.
- Adding new public items, as this might break code that does `use your_crate::*`.

Structs

- Adding private field when all current fields public.
- Adding public field when no private field exists.
- Adding or removing private fields when at least one already exists (before and after the change).
- Going from a tuple struct with all private fields (with at least one field) to a normal struct, or vice versa.

Enums

- Adding new variants; can be mitigated with early `#[non_exhaustive]` [REF](#)
- Adding new fields to a variant.

Traits

- Adding a non-defaulted item, breaks all existing `impl T for S {}`.
- Any non-trivial change to item signatures, will affect either consumers or implementors.
- Adding a defaulted item; might cause dispatch ambiguity with other existing trait.
- Adding a defaulted type parameter.

Traits

- Implementing any "fundamental" trait, as *not* implementing a fundamental trait already was a promise.
- Implementing any non-fundamental trait; might also cause dispatch ambiguity.

Inherent Implementations

- Adding any inherent items; might cause clients to prefer that over trait fn and produce compile error.

Signatures in Type Definitions

- Tightening bounds (e.g., `<T>` to `<T: Clone>`).
- Loosening bounds.
- Adding defaulted type parameters.
- Generalizing to generics.

Signatures in Functions

- Adding / removing arguments.
- Introducing a new type parameter.
- Generalizing to generics.

Behavioral Changes

- / ● Changing semantics might not cause compiler errors, but might make clients do wrong thing.

